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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

AT THE

TWENTIETH ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN CHICAGO, ILL.,
JUNE 8–11, 1893

EDITED BY

ISABEL C. BARROWS

Official Reporter of the Conference

BOSTON

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PREFACE.

The Twentieth National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in the city of Chicago, June 8 to 13, 1893, immediately before the meeting of the International Congress of Charities and Correction, which met in connection with the World's Congress Auxiliary of the World's Columbian Exposition.

In accordance with the action taken at the Denver meeting, in 1892, this was purely an historical Conference. The discussions and the section work, which usually engage the attention of the members, were left to the International Congress of Charities and Correction; and the sessions were devoted to a review of the progress made and the reforms accomplished in the fields of charities and correction during the past twenty years.

It is hoped that this volume will prove of great value to students in this department of sociology, covering, as it does, a period of extraordinary advancement in every direction. The papers have been prepared with great care by specialists, and they present in condensed form much of the best thought that has been promulgated in the twenty meetings of this Conference. In the President's address will be found references to papers in previous volumes, which will be found of great service. There was no attempt to make a complete bibliography. Those are mentioned which seemed to be of greatest importance.

An earnest effort was made to secure from each State a complete report, covering the historical development of its charitable and correctional work during the past two decades. This effort was largely successful; but in some cases every effort to secure a report failed, while in others the reports are incomplete. The reports from States, however, contain the most complete summary of the work of the several States that has yet been made. The attempt to make it complete has much delayed the publication of the volume.

An index of papers contained in the twenty volumes of Proceedings of Charities and Correction has been appended, which, it is believed, will add greatly to the usefulness of this report. This index has been prepared by the volunteer work of Mr. George G. Cowie, clerk of the Minnesota State Board of Corrections and Charities.

The next meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction will be held in Nashville, Tenn., beginning May 20, 1894; President, Hon. Lucius C. Storrs.

Boston, December, 1893.

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RULES OF PROCEDURE FOR THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Preamble.

The National Conference of Charities exists to discuss the problems of charities and correction, to disseminate information and promote reforms. It does not formulate platforms.

I. Membership.

The membership of a Conference shall include:—

(*a*) All past officers of the Conference who have served more than one year.

(*b*) Members and officers of State Boards of Charities or boards of kindred functions.

(*c*) Members of Boards of Management, and officers of public and private charitable and correctional institutions.

(*d*) Members and officers of boards and societies organized for the relief or improvement of the poor, the unfortunate, or the neglected.

(*e*) Persons designated by State or municipal authorities or by the Local Committee.

(*f*) Others especially interested may be enrolled as members, and may share in the discussions, without the privilege of voting.

(*g*) Honorary Members may be elected on recommendation of the Executive Committee.

(*h*) The annual membership fee shall be $2, which shall entitle each member to a copy of the Proceedings and other publications of the Conference.

(*i*) State Boards of Charities and other societies and institutions subscribing for the Proceedings in quantities shall be entitled to enroll their officers and members as members of this Conference, in proportion to the amount subscribed.

(*j*) The list of annual members shall be printed in the Proceedings, with asterisks marking those in attendance.

II. Officers.

The officers of the Conference shall be a President, one or more Vice-Presidents, a Treasurer, three Secretaries, and an Official Reporter and Editor. Also a Corresponding Secretary for each State and Territory.

These officers (except the Treasurer) shall be elected annually by the Conference for the ensuing year.

The ex-Presidents of the Conference shall be the Counsellors, and shall be members of the Executive Committee.

III. Committees.

The standing committees shall be an Executive Committee, a Local Committee, and a committee on each subject which it is proposed to discuss at the ensuing Conference.

The Executive Committee shall consist of the President *ex officio*, of five mem-

bers to be elected by the Conference, and of the Counsellors. This committee shall elect one of its members as treasurer. Six members shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

The chairman of each committee shall have power to fill vacancies, with the approval of the President.

The President, soon after the opening of the Conference, shall appoint a Committee on Organization of the next Conference and a Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting, each consisting of one member from each State and Territory; also a Committee on Resolutions, to which all resolutions shall be referred without debate.

IV. Duties of Officers.

The officers of the Conference shall discharge the duties usually devolving upon such officers.

The President-elect shall be chairman *ex officio* of the Executive Committee, and shall have the supervision of the work of the several committees in preparing for the meeting of the Conference and securing a suitable attendance. He shall have authority to accept resignations and fill vacancies in the list of officers and chairmen of committees.

The first Secretary shall be Secretary of the Executive Committee *ex officio*. He shall conduct the correspondence of the Conference with Committees, Governors, Boards of State Charities, etc., under the direction of the President. He shall direct the work of the other Secretaries during the Conference, and be responsible for correctness of the roll of members,

The Treasurer shall be the custodian of the unsold copies of the Proceedings and of the money received and disbursed in course of their preparation.

The Official Reporter and Editor shall report and edit the Proceedings of the Conference, subject to the direction of the Executive Committee.

The Corresponding Secretaries shall be responsible for the annual reports from their several States. It should be their duty to secure the attendance of representatives from public and private institutions and societies, and the appointment by Governors of State Delegates in those States where there are no State Boards of Charities.

V. Duties of Committees.

The Executive Committee shall be the President's Advisory Board, and shall hold the powers of the Conference in the interim between meetings.

The Local Committee shall make all necessary local arrangements for the meeting, and provide funds for the local expenses, such as hall rent, salary, and expenses of the Reporter, local printing, etc.

The Committee on Subjects shall arrange the programme for the sessions and section meetings assigned to them, subject to the approval of the President.

The committees are required to arrange their programmes so as to give opportunity for free discussion.

No paper shall be presented to the Conference except through the proper committees.

VI. Debates.

In the debates of the Conference each speaker shall be limited to five minutes, except by unanimous consent, and shall not be allowed to speak twice on any one subject until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.

VII. Amendments.

These rules may be suspended or amended at the pleasure of the Conference, but otherwise shall be in force from one year to another.

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I.

Opening Session.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

THE RELATION OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION TO THE PROGRESS OF THE PAST TWENTY YEARS.

BY HASTINGS H. HART.

At this twentieth meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction we are to depart from our usual programme. The miscellaneous papers and discussions and the section work, which usually employ the Conference, will be undertaken by the International Congress of Charities and Correction, which will immediately follow; and the time of the Conference will be devoted to an historical review of the progress made and the reforms accomplished in the field of Charities and Correction during the past twenty years. We are to survey the ground already traversed, to recount our victories, consider our mistakes, and mark points of departure for our coming work.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction has a prophetic mission. It looks forward, and not back; but I believe that we may profitably devote the necessary time to discover what has been achieved and what has been left undone, that we may go forward more intelligently to the tasks of the future.

Those who are engaged in a great work are often too impatient of the time and labor necessary to make full and accurate records of their work; yet it is these records by which we are able to avail ourselves of the experience, and to avoid the mistakes of our predecessors. It is painful to see well-meaning people expending their strength and their resources in repeating mistakes which might have

been avoided by a knowledge of what others have done before them; to see bad organizations, wasteful systems, defective buildings, whose faults might easily have been remedied. It is unnecessary, therefore, to offer an apology for the programme which is presented to you.

The reports of the several committees will present a topical review of the work in each of the leading departments of charity and correction, and the reports from the several States will show what has been accomplished locally.

We are to survey the progress of twenty years. I believe that it may be said, without exaggeration, that no other twenty years in the world's history have witnessed such advances in the care of the unfortunate and the treatment of delinquents. Other like periods may have done as much to originate new ideas and formulate new principles; but in this generation we have seen the rapid spread of these principles from institution to institution and from State to State, until reforms are accomplished in five years that would formerly have required forty years, and the danger sometimes is that the newer methods will be introduced before the people are sufficiently educated to make them efficient.

Since the National Conference of Charities and Correction was organized we have seen magnificent systems of charities and correction grow up, almost from the root, in great commonwealths like Iowa, Minnesota, Colorado, and Oregon. In the State of Minnesota alone the number of people under public care has increased in twenty years from seven hundred to four thousand. This Conference has seen a radical revolution in the treatment and care of the insane. It has seen a fivefold increase in the number of feeble-minded children under public care. It has seen the abolition of the asylum idea with reference to deaf and blind children, and a great change in public sentiment as to the methods of dealing with dependent children in favor of natural treatment in homes. It has seen the abolition of children's prisons and the reorganization of reform schools on the family idea. It has seen the development of the adult reformatory from the opening of the women's prison at Sherborn, in 1877, until we have now six adult reformatories in operation, with three thousand prisoners. It has seen the birth and development of the idea which has become formulated under the title of "Charity Organization," involving the co-operation of all

charity workers for the scientific study of the causes and preventives of pauperism and the wise application of the principles thus discovered. It has seen the recognition in our national laws of the principle that, if America is to continue to be a desirable resort for the oppressed and the unfortunate of other lands, she must restrict the immigration of those classes to such numbers as she can assimilate. It has seen changes in our legislation relative to criminals and insane persons so radical that the conservative people of older nations have looked on aghast.

In short, the past two decades have witnessed a mighty movement in this field,— a movement which has outstripped the marvellous growth of our population, and has even outstripped the wonderful accumulation of wealth in this country; for both the ratio of the population under public care and the proportionate expenditure of public funds in their behalf have greatly increased.

Influence of the Conference not Measurable.

It is my task to trace, as far as may be, the relation of the National Conference of Charities and Correction to this great movement. This task, which seemed at first comparatively simple, proved on experiment not to be an easy one. To simply summarize the progress recorded in the nineteen volumes of the Proceedings of the Conference would require a volume; and, even if that were done, to trace the influence of the hundreds of able papers, as well as the discussions from year to year, is impossible. It is like attempting to measure the influence of a great newspaper or a great university. The task is complicated by the relation of this body to the State Boards of Charities, the National Prison Association, the Society of Medical Superintendents of Hospitals for Insane, the Association of Medical Officers of Institutions for Idiots and Feeble-minded Persons, the American Social Science Association, and other kindred bodies.

You will find the ideas which have been formulated in the Conference built into the walls of prisons and hospitals for insane. You will find them incorporated in the statutes of our Commonwealths, even in the constitutions of some of the newer States. Tens of thousands of the poor are less miserable to-day because of the work of this body. Thousands of unfortunate children have had their

lives turned into safer and happier channels. Thousands of the insane and the feeble-minded have been lifted into the plane of human beings. Hundreds of criminals have felt the inspiration of a loftier purpose through the living thoughts that have been disseminated from this Conference.

The truth is that this Conference is a part of the great movement of which we have spoken, and it cannot well be considered apart from that movement. There is a reciprocal action between the Conference and the State Boards, the charitable societies and the institutions. On this platform has been opened a free parliament where every shade of opinion finds free expression. The members come together fresh from the actual work of administering public institutions, caring for the poor, or studying sociological questions. They bring fresh thoughts, born of the necessities of practical work. They ask urgent questions, calling for instant solution; and having learned their lessons, like the pupils in Dotheboys Hall, they straightway set off to put them in practice, only to return the next year with new experiences for farther comparison. Thus the Conference has become the embodiment of contemporary thought, gaining strength with the increase of intelligent ideas, until the twenty members of the Conference of 1874 have increased to the five hundred of 1892.

The influence of the Conference is not limited to the effect produced upon its members as they sit in its sessions and listen to papers and discussions. The mere presence of the Conference in any city produces a powerful effect. The local press and the local pulpits begin to discuss philanthropy and prison reform. Large audiences gather together to hear the discussion of popular themes, and new currents of public thought are started. The published Proceedings of the Conference exercise an influence hardly second to its meetings. The annual volume circulates widely at home and abroad, and deliberate reading often produces more effect than the original hearing. Another potent source of influence is the personal contact of the members with each other. It is a matter of frequent testimony that the meeting with individual members in the hotel corridors and on the journey to and from the Conference is nearly as profitable as attendance upon the public meetings.

Exerting its influence in these different ways, the Conference has become a balance wheel, steadying the movement of the system of

charities of the whole country, checking hasty and ill-considered movements, and spurring up the tardy and ultra-conservative. Those of us who are accustomed to inspect public institutions could multiply instances where important reforms have been executed by unwilling hands under the pressure of public sentiment created by this Conference.

The influence exerted by such a body as this is far-reaching and pervasive, and the surface indications are often deceptive. Its most powerful action may be concealed, while those movements which seem to be directly connected with it may have other springs which we do not perceive. Two illustrations may indicate the difficulty of this undertaking:—

In 1886 ex-Governor Hoadly read a paper before the National Conference of Charities and Correction on the "Pardoning Power," in which he advocated the parole system and the indefinite sentence. Six years later Governor Merriam of Minnesota, in preparing an article for the public press, read Governor Hoadly's paper, and was so impressed by it that he decided, without legislation, to inaugurate a conditional pardon system, with the grade and mark system, in the Minnesota State Prison. This was successfully accomplished, and resulted in the enactment of a law by the legislature of 1893 establishing the system legally in the Minnesota State prison. This result was directly attributable to the National Conference of Charities and Correction; yet the connection might easily have been entirely unrecognized. On the other hand, it is possible to give to the Conference honor which is not its proper due. In response to an inquiry respecting the influence of the Conference, Hon. C. D. Randall of Michigan, the original author of the famous law establishing the State Public School of Michigan, wrote, "I am sure that the report of the Conference in Cincinnati, the first one held, a copy of which was presented to me by our friend Mr. Brockway, when I was a member of the Michigan Senate in 1871, had much to do in giving Michigan its present unique system for the protection and care of dependent children." As a matter of fact, the National Conference of Charities and Correction was not organized until 1874, and even so exact a man as Mr. Randall has been misled by his memory into giving honor to the Conference which belongs of right to the National Prison Congress.

Testimony of Members.

Some months ago I addressed a circular to about one hundred of the active members of the Conference, asking what important reforms or improvements might, in their judgment, be justly credited to the Conference. While some of these correspondents could not mention any specific gain achieved through the Conference, they concurred as to its general influence. For example, Mr. Charles W. Birtwell, of Massachusetts, writes: "The influence of the Conference seems to have been pervasive rather than specific. I should credit it with aiding and abetting that spirit which seeks improvement." Mrs. Anne B. Richardson writes, "The Conference is certainly a great enlightener." Mr. George B. Buzelle, of New York, writes, "A general elevation of the tone of altruistic thought is probably fairly attributable to the Conference." Hon. Charles Parrott, of Ohio, writes, "Reforms and improvements of methods in all our benevolent, penal, and correctional institutions, may fairly be credited to the National Conference of Charities." Superintendent T. J. Charlton, of Indiana, writes, "Every branch of the State service in Indiana has been greatly helped by the work of the Conference." Mrs. Agnes D'Arcambal, of Michigan, writes, "Every good work receives a new inspiration." Secretary L. C. Storrs, of Michigan, writes, "The influence of the Conference is felt along all the lines of work in which the State Board of Corrections and Charities is interested." Professor B. B. Huntoon, of Kentucky, writes, "The education of the people in social economics and the encouragement of scientific methods may be fairly credited to the Conference." Hon. Thomas N. Strong, of Oregon, writes, "Its influence is very manifest among the intelligent workers of the State."

While it is difficult to trace the connection of the National Conference of Charities and Correction with specific reforms, it is possible to do so in many cases. I will give a few illustrations:

Miss Z. D. Smith, of Massachusetts, writes, "In charity organization the chief gain I have seen from the National Conference of Charities and Correction is the quickening of co-operation between the different societies all over the country."

Hon. William P. Letchworth writes, "Restricted immigration and

charity organization have received perhaps, through the influence of the conferences, greater stimulus than other subjects."

Miss M. I. Moore, of New York, writes, "As a result of the Conference held in Buffalo, a quarterly conference of the charities of the city was organized, which has been maintained ever since."

John Glenn, of Maryland, writes, "The National Conference has had a very decided effect here upon the place taken by women upon the platform and on the increased prominence given to charity organization."

Superintendent A. G. Warner, of the District of Columbia, writes: "A non-political appointment by President Harrison to the office of Superintendent of Charities for the District of Columbia and the consequent establishment of a Board of Children's Guardians and the curtailment of public subsidies to private charities can be properly credited to the National Conference of Charities and Correction."

Mr. P. W. Ayres, of Ohio, credits the National Conference of Charities and Correction with the organization of the Ohio State Conference of Charities and Correction and the active movement for the abolition of public outdoor relief in the State of Ohio.

Bishop Gillespie, of Michigan, credits the National Conference of Charities and Corrections with: — (*a*) The better condition of jails and poorhouses as to management and discipline. (*b*) The lowering of expenses of institutions. (*c*) The greater intelligence of the people about penal and pauper institutions. (*d*) The interest in the school for imbeciles now likely to be established.

Mr. D. C. Bell, of Minnesota, writes, "The modification in our State Prison, as well as our State Reformatory at St. Cloud, may in some good part be credited to the National Conference of Charities and Correction."

Superintendent G. A. Merrill, of Minnesota, writes, "I have understood that the State Public School of Minnesota was established in consequence of the National Conference held in St. Louis in 1884." Mr. H. W. Lewis writes the same.

Professor B. B. Huntoon, of Kentucky, writes, "In our State charity organization and the establishment of humane societies are probably the direct outcome of the work of the Conference."

Hon. R. R. Caldwell, of Tennessee, writes, "The work on charity organization and on the child problem has in this city taken strong

hold of the hearts of our people mainly by reason of the influence and inspiration of those who attended the Conference."

Miss Mary H. Perry, of Missouri, writes, "The influence of the Conference of Charities and Correction is shown by the desire for the organization of a State Board of Charities for Missouri."

Rev. C. W. Wendte, of California, writes, "It has helped us in charity administration, and has given stimulus toward a State Board."

The organization of the State Boards of Charities in Indiana, Minnesota, Colorado, and Oregon, may be fairly credited to the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

Origin of the Conference.

It is not my purpose to go into extended annals of the Conference. Twenty-one years ago the Wisconsin Board of Charities and Reform invited some of the members of the Illinois Board of State Charities to visit Wisconsin. In the course of that visit it was suggested that a consultation between State Boards of Charities might be mutually profitable; and an informal meeting of the Boards of Wisconsin, Illinois, and Michigan was called in Chicago in May, 1872. This meeting was found so profitable that a second meeting was called in Milwaukee in May, 1873; and, as a consequence, the First National Conference of Charities was called to meet in connection with the American Social Science Association in New York in 1874.

The First Conference of Charities was a remarkable meeting, though there were only about twenty persons present, and only four States represented. Five of the members of that Conference became Presidents of the organization: Mr. J. V. L. Pruyn, in 1874; Mr. F. B. Sanborn, in 1881; Mr. William P. Letchworth, in 1884; Mr. H. H. Giles, in 1887; and Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, in 1890. It included several eminent physicians, among them Dr. Stephen Smith of New York and Dr. J. B. Chapin, superintendent of the Willard Asylum. Rev. John Hall, D.D., was an active participant in the proceedings,— a fit precursor of the many notable clergymen who have shared in this work. Mrs. Mary E. D. Lynde of Wisconsin, Mrs. Caroline H. Dall of Massachusetts, and Miss M. E. Pettee of Connecticut took part in the discussions. Women were admitted to the Conference on equal terms with men. There were no formal rules. No resolutions

were adopted, and no effort made to formulate a platform or to give effect to the ideas of the Conference beyond their publication in the Proceedings of the American Social Science Association; and the lines thus marked out by that First Conference have been followed pretty closely ever since.

The leading subjects discussed were: (1) State Boards of Charities; (2) The Care of the Insane; (3) Public Buildings; (4) Pauperism (including Settlement Laws, Outdoor Relief, and Almshouses); (5) City Charities and (6) Statistics of Crime and Pauperism. In 1875 there were added to these topics: (7) Reports from States; (8) Medical Charities (including Hospitals); (9) Care of Dependent Children; (10) Care of Delinquent Children; and (11) Immigration; in 1877, (12) Tramps; in 1878, (13) Prison Reform (including Convict Labor); in 1880, (14) Charity Organization; and (15) Epileptics; in 1882, (16) Education of the Deaf and Blind; in 1884, (17) Provision for the Feeble-minded; in 1887, (18) The Indian Question; and in 1891, (19) Women's Work in Philanthropy.

The most of these nineteen topics have been discussed in some form in each succeeding Conference. Other topics have been omitted in the enumeration because they are included under one of these heads. For example: The Administration of Public Institutions; Almshouses and Jails; State *versus* County Care of the Insane; Free Kindergartens; Orphan Asylums and Children's Homes; Placing-out Systems; Probation Laws; Interstate Migration; Adult Reformatories; Women's Prisons; Registration of Paupers and Criminals, etc.

The first five meetings were held in connection with the meetings of the American Social Science Association, and were virtually sections of the Association; but in 1879 the Conference became an independent body. Previous to 1879 the Conference had been composed of representatives of the State Boards of Charities and members of the American Social Science Association; but from that time delegates were appointed by the governors of States that had no State Boards of Charities.

There have been three meetings on the Atlantic Coast, four on the southern border, five on the great lakes, two at Saratoga, one on the Pacific Coast, and five in the western interior. The Conference grew rapidly in attendance and in the number of States represented, as may be seen from the following statement:—

MEETINGS OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Year.	Place of Meeting.	States represented.	Members in Attendance.		
			From the Convention City.	From Other Places.	Totals.
1874	New York	4	6	13	19
1875	Detroit	7	5	15	20
1876	Saratoga	9	–	23	23
1877	Saratoga	11	–	49	49
1878	Cincinnati	10	12	27	39
1879	Chicago	12	40	106	146
1880	Cleveland	17	44	100	144
1881	Boston	20	53	186	239
1882	Madison	24	38	204	242
1883	Louisville	32	78	201	279
1884	St. Louis	24	60	172	232
1885	Washington	31	116	304	420
1886	St. Paul	24	56	431	487
1887	Omaha	20	64	164	228
1888	Buffalo	31	43	261	304
1889	San Francisco	15	112	115	227
1890	Baltimore	27	195	318	513
1891	Indianapolis	24	123	338	461
1892	Denver	28	186	313	499
1893	Chicago	–	–	–	–

The work of the Conference has been carried on by committees appointed a year in advance. Each committee has organized that part of the programme relating to its own subject. The reports of the committees have been accompanied by papers from competent specialists, which have been followed by free discussions on the floor of the Conference. For several years past sections have been organized for the benefit of those who desire to discuss in detail such subjects as Charity Organization, Juvenile Reformatories, Dependent Children, Plans for Public Buildings, etc.

State Boards of Charities.

The relation between the National Conference of Charities and Correction and the State Boards of Charities has been one of reciprocity. The Conference owed its origin to the State Boards, and in its turn it has become the mother of new ones. Eleven State

Boards had been organized before the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and eight have since been added. The creation of the State Boards of Minnesota, Colorado, Oregon, Wyoming, Montana, and Indiana, may probably be credited directly to the influence of the National Conference.

The State Boards of Charities have kept in close touch with the Conference. They have contributed to it their best thought and their freshest experience, and they have been quick to avail themselves of the best that it had to offer. We have only to mention the names of Sanborn, Hitchcock, Shurtleff, Mrs. Leonard, Letchworth, Hoyt, Roosevelt, Dwight, Craig, Mrs. Lowell, Garrett, Luther, Byers, Brinkerhoff, Neff, Follett, Gillespie, Barbour, Storrs, McCulloch, Johnson, Wines, Robinson, Elmore, Wright, Giles, Mrs. Fairbanks, Faulkner, Dana, Bell, Willis, Reed, Appel, Slocum, and O'Reilly, to emphasize the relation of this body to the State Boards.

In answer to recent inquiries, I have received emphatic testimony from many of the officers and members of the State Boards as to its influence upon their work, especially in the younger States, where the development of the past twenty years has been most rapid.

In the State of Minnesota, for example, the influence of the Conference has been unmistakably felt in the organization of the State Board of Corrections and Charities in 1883, and then, through the State Board, in the organization of the School for Dependent Children in 1885; in the change of a second State Prison to an adult reformatory on the Elmira plan in 1887; in the recodification of the insanity laws in 1893; and in the enactment of a new jail law in 1893, providing for the separate confinement of all jail prisoners and the appointment of jail matrons. These reforms in legislation, with others, have been made on the recommendation of the State Board of Corrections and Charities, inspired and fortified by the National Conference. The Conference has been potent in like manner in the work of other State Boards, notably those of Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin.

State Boards of Charities have been ably discussed at most of the meetings. Among the notable papers on the subject are those of General Brinkerhoff in 1880, Mr. Robinson in 1881, Mr. Wines in 1890, and Mr. Letchworth in 1892, and the report of the Committee on State Boards in 1889.

Charity Organization.

This Conference is itself a form of charity organization, and it works for the organization of the charities of the United States and the co-operation of State Boards of Charities in a manner similar to the work of charity organization in cities; but the term "charity organization" is used, technically, in relation to societies in cities.

The history of charity organization is closely identified with that of the National Conference. It has had such representatives as Robert Treat Paine and Miss Zilpha D. Smith, of Boston; Hon. Charles S. Fairchild, Charles D. Kellogg, Professor Theodore Dwight, Miss Louise Lee Schuyler, and Mrs. C. R. Lowell of New York, Seth Low and George B. Buzelle, of Brooklyn; Philip C. Garrett and Dr. James W. Walk, of Philadelphia; John Glenn and Miss Richmond, of Baltimore; Mrs. Spencer and Professor A. G. Warner, of Washington; T. Guilford Smith and N. S. Rosenau, of Buffalo; E. R. Donehoo, of Pittsburg; Levi L. Barbour and Dr. Post, of Detroit; P. H. Ayres, H. Thane Miller, of Cincinnati; Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch, of Indianapolis; Rev. C. G. Trusdell and Rev. Graham Taylor, of Chicago; George A. Brackett and George D. Holt, of Minneapolis; Rev. S. G. Smith, D.D., and John D. Ludden, of St. Paul; Thomas Uzzell and Mrs. Jacobs, of Denver; and Rev. Charles Wendte, of Oakland.

Charity organization societies had begun to spread in England when this Conference was organized, but had not found a foothold in the United States. At the first meeting of the Conference, in 1874, Rev. John Hall, D.D., of New York, gave a very interesting account of an attempt to establish in New York a bureau of charities, "which," he said, "was to ferret out impostors and to make charities reach only those who were in real need,—a sort of clearing-house of charities." The effort had failed through lack of co-operation; but the need of some more universal solvent than existing charitable societies was distinctly recognized, and Mr. Charles D. Kellogg, of New York, writes: "I trace the inauguration of the New York Charity Organization Society to the prominence given to charity organization work in the National Conference, acting upon the members of the State Boards of Charities in this State."

In the Conference of 1880 there was for the first time a committee

on the organization of charities in cities, and the first great paper on the subject was read by Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch. From that day on charity organization was a child of the Conference, and became one of its most enthusiastic and interesting departments. The movement spread from city to city with great rapidity until there are now more than eighty societies classified as charity organization societies.

The work drew to it many highly trained men and women; and what has come to be known as "scientific charity" was evolved, comprising the study of the causes of pauperism, means of prevention, plans for self-help, and organization of friendly visitors and provident schemes.

In 1886 a charity organization section was organized for the study of details of organization, methods, and principles; and the public meetings of the charity organization section have continued to excite great interest. Many notable papers have been presented in this department, among others the reports of the committees on charity organization in 1880 and 1881; Hon. C. S. Fairchild's paper on the "Objects of Charity Organization," in 1884; Mrs. Lowell's on "Charity Organization in Small Cities," in 1887; Mr. McCulloch's on "The Tribe of Ishmael," in 1888; Mrs. Lowell's on the "Economic and Moral Effects of Outdoor Relief," in 1890; and President Slocum's on "The Practical Side of Charity Organization," in 1892.

The charity organization movement marks an epoch. Its work thus far has been largely tentative, but it has already impressed itself powerfully upon our civilization. It has encountered criticisms, some of which were just; but even those who have criticised it most severely have been influenced by it unconsciously, much as allopathic physicians have modified their treatment of diseases under the influence of the homœopathic school.

With the change of the United States into a land of cities, the importance of this movement is inestimable; and it is not too much to hope that at the end of another score of years we shall see the universal adoption of its cardinal ideas,—co-operation of all charitable agencies; careful investigation, registration, and cure of pauperism, if possible, by friendship in the place of alms; and prompt, adequate relief, when necessary.

Closely related to charity organization is the recent movement for the study of sociology in colleges, which opens up a prospect of a

future generation of educated students, and promises new achievements in the scientific study of the problems of poverty.

Care and Treatment of the Insane.

The subject of insanity has received much attention from this Conference. It has been discussed by such experts as Dr. Bancroft, of New Hampshire; Dr. Pliny Earle and Dr. Nathan Allen, of Massachusetts; Dr. Stephen Smith and Dr. J. B. Chapin, of New York; Dr. Alice Bennett, of Pennsylvania; Dr. Richard Gundry, of Maryland; Dr. W. W. Godding, of Washington; Dr. Peter Bryce, of Alabama; Dr. A. B. Richardson, of Ohio; Dr. W. B. Fletcher and Dr. Joseph G. Rogers, of Indiana; Dr. R. S. Dewey, of Illinois; Dr. H. M. Hurd and Dr. E. H. Van Deusen, of Michigan; Dr. O. W. Archibald, of North Dakota; and Dr. E. T. Wilkins, of California.

Some of the leading papers on insanity have been on "The Duty of the State toward the Insane Poor," by Dr. J. B. Chapin, in 1874; on "State Legislation relative to Insanity," by Dr. Nathan Allen, in 1875; on "Governmental Supervision of the Insane," by Dr. H. B. Wilbur, in 1876; on "The Prevention of Disease and Insanity," by Dr. Nathan Allen, in 1878; on "The Management of the Insane," by Dr. Pliny Earle, in 1879; on "The Right of the Insane to Liberty," by Dr. E. C. Seguin, in 1880; on "County Care of Insane Paupers," by Hon. H. H. Giles, in 1881 (with similar papers from members of the Wisconsin delegation in subsequent years); on "Care of the Chronic Insane," by Dr. H. Wardner, in 1883; on "The Increase of Insanity," by A. O. Wright, in 1884; on "Asylum Construction," by Dr. W. W. Godding; on "Provision for the Chronic Insane," by Dr. J. H. Vivian, in 1885; on "Training Schools for Attendants," by Dr. Richard Dewey; on "The Care of the Chronic Insane in Families," by F. B. Sanborn in 1887; on "Moral and Criminal Responsibility," by Dr. Peter Bryce, in 1888; on "The Detention and Care of the Insane," by Dr. Stephen Smith, in 1880, 1889, 1890, and 1892; on "The Care and Treatment of the Insane," by Dr. Richard Gundry, in 1889 and 1890; on "The Care and Treatment of the Insane" by Dr. W. B. Fletcher; and on "Voluntary or Self-commitment to Hospitals for Insane," by Dr. Richard Dewey, 1891.

The discussion has not been limited to medical experts, but the

laity have made able contributions. Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts; Mr. William P. Letchworth, of New York; General R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio; Secretary Fred H. Wines, of Illinois; and Messrs. Elmore, Vivian, Giles, and Wright, of Wisconsin, with many others,— have taken an active share in the discussion.

At the first meeting of the Conference, in 1874, Dr. Chapin attacked vigorously the vicious system, then at its climax, of building hospitals for the insane at a cost of $1,500 to $3,000 per bed, while multitudes of insane, equally deserving, were left in miserable condition in poorhouses.

Two leading ideas have directed the discussion of the commitment and care of the insane in the Conference. Of these the first is that it is the duty of the State governments to assume the responsibility for the care of the insane, and not to leave it to local corporations or private individuals. There has been vigorous discussion from the first meeting of the Conference as to whether all public patients should be kept in State institutions or whether chronic patients should be kept in county institutions. A strong wing of the Conference, led by the Wisconsin delegation, has maintained that county care under stringent State supervision is preferable to State care for this class of patients, because: first, the conditions of small institutions are more homelike, afford more employment, and involve less distance from friends; and, second, patients can be more economically cared for, without sacrificing anything essential to their welfare or their comfort.

The Wisconsin people proved their faith by their works. They created twenty county insane asylums, from which the abuses of almshouse care were eliminated by a State subsidy, conditioned upon strict compliance with the requirements of the State Board of Charities and Reform. They invited interested people from all parts of the Union to visit these asylums at the expense of the State of Wisconsin. The visitors found comfortable buildings, accommodating fifty to one hundred patients each, in charge of intelligent farmers with their wives. Most of these asylums had open doors and non-restraint. The inmates were manifestly well cared for, and better contented than the average State hospital patient. Large farms furnished an unusual amount of employment with a corresponding reduction of expense. The most critical observers had to admit that the system, as administered, was satisfactory. Never-

theless, the Wisconsin system has not been adopted by a single State. New York and Pennsylvania came nearest the Wisconsin system of county care of the insane; but, after many years of discussion, the State of New York has finally adopted legislation providing for the care of all public insane patients in State institutions, except in the cities of New York and Brooklyn. In Pennsylvania the legislature of 1891 made provision for a new State asylum for chronic insane, to accommodate about one thousand patients. The same legislature appropriated $190,000 to reimburse counties maintaining their own insane; but the bill was vetoed by Governor Pattison on the ground that "humane and disinterested investigation of the condition of the insane in county almshouses has abundantly proved that the system of treatment in State institutions is vastly preferable to that of local care." The State Committee on Lunacy in their report for 1891* say: "There seems to be no objection to the reception of insane into the better class of almshouses until more suitable provision can be furnished; but it must be conceded that generally the standard of care in the majority of county institutions is far below that which the insane of any class should receive." †

While a portion of the insane are under county care in a majority of the States of the Union, I do not remember that the system of county care has been advocated in this Conference, except by our Wisconsin friends, for several years past. The mission of Wisconsin has not been vain, however. A marked effect has been produced upon State institutions by the discussions which the Wisconsin system has caused; and what is known as the colony plan, at the Kalamazoo asylum in Michigan, is avowedly an effort to secure some of the advantages of the Wisconsin county system in the State institutions.

The second great idea that has pervaded the discussion of insanity in this body is the recognition of the insane patient as a person, with individual and personal rights. The working of this idea is seen in the advocacy of greater care in committing the insane to hospitals, legalizing of voluntary commitments, increase of personal liberty, compensation for labor, etc. It is seen also in the efforts to increase the comfort and happiness of the insane and to improve the service.

The Conference has helped to establish reasonable ideas with

* Report of Pennsylvania Committee on Lunacy, 1891–92, p. 20. † Same, p. 47.

reference to buildings for the insane, avoiding, on the one hand, the extravagance of the asylums at Danvers, Buffalo, and Morristown, but favoring safe, convenient buildings, with sufficient room for comfort and with proper sanitary arrangements. The discussions in the Conference have helped to bring into favor the cottage plan, with its larger liberty and more natural life.

Treatment of the Feeble-minded.

When this Conference was organized, there were in the United States seven institutions for the care and training of the idiotic and feeble-minded, containing about 1,000 inmates. Now there are some seventeen institutions, containing about 5,000 inmates. So that the system has grown up, for the most part, under the observation of this organization.

While the care of the feeble-minded was discussed incidentally in the Conferences of 1875, 1877, 1879, 1880, and 1882, the first special committee on this subject was organized for the Eleventh Conference, in 1884; but since that time the subject has received adequate attention. The leaders in this work have entered heartily into this organization. In fact, I cannot recall one man who has attained eminence in this specialty who has not been a member of this Conference. Dr. S. G. Howe, Dr. Fernald, Dr. H. B. Wilbur, Dr. C. F. Wilbur, Mr. Richards, Dr. Kerlin, Dr. Doren, Dr. Fish, Dr. Powell, Dr. George H. Knight, Dr. A. C. Rogers, Dr. Stewart, Dr. Greene, and Miss Mattie Gundry have all been enrolled with us.

Among the important papers on this subject, are the report of the committee by Dr. Kerlin in 1884, and again in 1888; Dr. Greene's paper on "The Claims of the Feeble-minded on the Public" in 1888; and Dr. Knight's paper on "The Colony Plan for All Grades of Feeble-minded" in 1892. Especially noteworthy was Mr. James B. Richards's unstudied address at the Washington Conference, which was a revelation to every hearer of the patience, self-sacrifice, and love involved in work for these little ones.

Most of the early institutions were strictly educational in character. In 1884 Dr. Stewart, of Kentucky, said that he thought that fifty to seventy-five per cent. of the feeble-minded class (excluding idiots) could be made self-supporting. The Ohio institution, at that time, reported that twenty-four to thirty per cent. of their children

became self-supporting, but Dr. Kerlin reported only ten per cent of those discharged from the Pennsylvania institution as self-supporting. Custodial provision for idiotic women had already been provided in New York in 1879, and Dr. Kerlin foreshadowed the necessity for similar provision for children of a higher grade of mentality who could not be educated to the point of self-support. Four years later, in reporting on the same subject, Dr. Kerlin estimated that one-half of all the inmates of such schools would need permanent custodial care. Later experience has fully justified his anticipations; and already the States of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Minnesota are endeavoring to provide custodial care for the most urgent cases, but the inadequacy of this provision may be seen by the following comparison: —

NUMBER OF IDIOTS AND FEEBLE-MINDED.

State.	Per Census of 1890.	Need Care (one-half).	In Institutions.	
			No.	Per cent.
New York	7,337	3,668	1,387	38
Pennsylvania	8,753	4,377	856	19
Ohio	8,035	4,017	835	21
Minnesota	1,451	726	320	44
	25,576	12,788	3,398	28

It appears, therefore, that in the States which are making the most liberal provision only twenty-eight per cent. of those needing care are provided for, even if we include all of the brighter children under instruction. If we included only those who belong properly to the custodial class, the proportion now cared for would be much smaller.

The last State to make provision for feeble-minded children is Michigan, whose legislature passed a law for its establishment only a few days ago. Wisconsin is now the only one of the more progressive States that lacks such an institution.

Dependent Children.

At the first meeting of the Conference a committee was appointed with the significant title "A Committee to consider the Condition of Destitute and Delinquent Children and the Prevention of Pauperism." This title suggests the thought that has dominated the discussion of the child question in this Conference; namely, the prevention of crime and pauperism by proper care of dependent and delinquent children. At the Conference of 1875 Governor Bagley, of Michigan, set forth admirably the Michigan plan, then only four years old, and Miss Mary Carpenter read an excellent paper entitled, "What should be done for the Neglected and Criminal Children of the United States?" From that time on the child question has absorbed much of the attention of the Conference. At first, dependent and delinquent children were classed together, and, indeed, they were often kept in the same institutions; but, gradually, the two classes were separated.

Among the workers in this department who have been active members of this Conference are: Elizabeth C. Putnam and Mr. Charles W. Birtwell, of Massachusetts; Charles L. Brace and William P. Letchworth, of New York; Homer Folks, of Pennsylvania; J. H. Mills, of North Carolina; Judge J. C. Ferris, of Tennessee; Dr. A. G. Byers, of Ohio; Hon. C. D. Randall and J. N. Foster, of Michigan; L. P. Alden, of Indiana; Dr. F. M. Gregg, of Illinois; G. A. Merrill, of Minnesota; C. E. Faulkner, of Kansas; and Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, of California.

Among the important papers on this subject have been the papers of Mr. Charles L. Brace on "The Placing-out Plan," in 1876; of Mrs. Cooper on "Kindergartens as Child-saving Work," in 1882; of Madame Arenal on "The Abandonment of Children," and of John H. Foster on "Ten Years of Child-saving Work in Michigan," in 1884; of Professor W. T. Harris on the "Relation of Education to Crime and Social Morals," in 1885; of Mr. Letchworth on "Children of the State," in 1886; of Felix Adler on the "Influence of Manual Training on Character," in 1888; of Hon. C. D. Randall on "The Michigan Law for the Protection of Ill-treated Children," in 1889; of John H. Finley on "The Child Problem in Cities," in 1891.

The work of this body has probably been as efficient in dealing

with the child problem as any other. It found four plans in vogue: first, the almshouse plan, whereby children were kept in association with adult paupers; second, the asylum plan, under which orphan and dependent children were taken and brought up in institutions until the age of fifteen to eighteen years, the asylums being subsidized, in some cases, from the public treasury; third, the placing-out system, whereby children were sent out from New York and other large cities by the thousand to be located in country homes at a cost of ten to fifteen dollars each; fourth, the Michigan system, which combined the last two, children being received temporarily into an institution only to be transferred at the earliest opportunity into a selected family home, but to remain under the guardianship and close supervision of the State. These systems have been discussed with increasing interest in this body; and, as a result, the keeping of children of sound mind and body in almshouses is now forbidden by law in many of the States. "Orphan asylums" are fast giving place to "children's homes" and "State schools"; and institution life is coming to be recognized as an artificial and undesirable condition, which should continue as short a time as practicable. The placing-out system, as practised twenty years ago, has been abandoned. Children are sent out from New York in small companies, and are placed with greater care and at more expense. The Children's Home Society has rapidly extended its work into seven States, and carries on the placing-out system with much care at a cost of about $50 per child; and in Massachusetts and Pennsylvania many children are boarded out in selected families, temporarily, at a low rate, as preliminary to settlement in "free homes," and State schools on the Michigan plan have been established in several of the States.

In a few States the practice of indiscriminate association of dependent and criminal children in the same institution continues, but even in those States the practice is discountenanced as a wrong upon innocent children.

The Committee on the History of Child-saving Work presents, as its report to this Conference, an elegant volume of 330 pages, printed at the expense of the members of the Committee, to which you are referred for fuller information.

Delinquent Children.

Twenty years ago this Conference found the juvenile reformatory well advanced in the right direction. In Connecticut, Ohio, Minnesota, and probably in other States, children were sentenced until their majority, unless sooner reformed; and the grade and mark system with the parole system prevailed. In Ohio it had been demonstrated that bad boys could be held more securely without bolts, bars, and walls than with them, and the practicability of the cottage system had been demonstrated. Yet there was work for the Conference to do, and it has been worthily done by such representatives as Miss Mary Carpenter, of Massachusetts; Superintendent Ray, of New Hampshire; Superintendent Howe and Mrs. Bond, of Connecticut; Chaplain Nutting, of Rhode Island; Superintendent Israel Jones and Captain Fulton, of New York; Mrs. M. E. Cobb, of Pennsylvania; Superintendent Hite, of Ohio; Superintendent Otterson, of New Jersey; Superintendent Caldwell, of Kentucky; Superintendent Charlton, of Indiana; Bishop Gillespie, Superintendent Gower, and Miss Emma Hall, of Michigan; Superintendent Scouller and Mrs. L. R. Wardner, of Illinois; Mrs. Cobb, of Wisconsin; Superintendent Riheldaffer, of Minnesota; Superintendent Mallalieu, of Nebraska; Superintendent Lindsley, of California; and Henry Oliver, of Washington.

Some of the noteworthy papers are Miss Carpenter's paper on "What should be done for the Neglected and Criminal Children of the United States?" read in 1875; Mrs. Lynde's on "Prevention in Some of its Aspects," in 1879; Miss Hall's on "The Reformation of Criminal Girls," in 1883; Mr. Fay's "Defence of Contract Labor in the New York House of Refuge," in 1883; Superintendent Charlton's on "Labor in Reform Schools," in 1885 (and again in 1890); Superintendent Fulton's on "Technological Training," in 1886; and Superintendent Mallalieu's on "Some Methods and Results of Reform School Training," in 1892.

The chief points of progress during the twenty years have been: first, the general extension of the Ohio family plan, the removal of high walls and prison features, and the establishment of homelike conditions; second, the general extension of the indeterminate sentence, with the grade, mark, and parole system; third, the establish-

ment of the probation system in Massachusetts, Michigan, and to some extent in Pennsylvania, whereby children's sentences may be suspended during good behavior, under supervision of a friendly officer; fourth, the introduction of technological instruction and practical trade teaching; fifth, the commitment of girls to separate institutions; sixth, the separation of delinquent children from those who are merely dependent.

At the Second Conference, 1875, Miss Mary Carpenter read an excellent paper on "Neglected and Criminal Children," in which she said without challenge: "The State should assume control of all the young persons under the age of fourteen who are without proper guardianship. All may be classed together under that age, *for there is no distinction between pauper, vagrant, and criminal children which would require a different system of treatment*": and at the same meeting Mr. Letchworth offered the following resolution, which, after full discussion, was unanimously adopted: —

Resolved, That the Conference recommends that the various State Boards use their influence to bring about such legislation as shall cause dependent children to be removed from almshouses and jails, and from all association with *adult* paupers and criminals, and placed in families, asylums, *reformatories*, and other appropriate institutions.

But in the Conference of 1886, after eleven years' further observation, Mr. Letchworth said: "It has long been painfully evident to me that there was a lack of discrimination in sending young persons to reformatories. We find in the same establishment the truant, the homeless child, the wayward, the petty thief, and the felon. Thus a great wrong is inflicted upon the innocent, — the greater because of their helplessness." Mr. Letchworth's change of view on this question was shared by all who followed the discussions of the Conference in those years.

Prison Reform.

Prison reform has been most efficiently promoted by the National Prison Association, and many members of this Conference have been members also of that association; yet the subject has not been neglected in this body. The Conference has had the honor to enroll among its members such prison reformers as President Rutherford B.

Hayes, of Ohio; Mrs. Ellen C. Johnson, Colonel Gardner Tufts, and W. F. Spaulding, of Massachusetts; Professor Francis Wayland, of Connecticut; Superintendent Z. R. Brockway, W. M. F. Round, and Eugene Smith, of New York; J. W. Langmuir, of Quebec; Richard Vaux and Chaplain John L. Milligan, of Pennsylvania; G. S. Griffith, of Maryland; General R. Brinkerhoff, Chaplain A. G. Byers, and Superintendent W. D. Patterson, of Ohio: Mrs. E. L. Hendricks, of Indiana; Captain Joseph Nicholson, Mrs. D'Arcambal, Warden H. F. Hatch, and Chaplain George H. Hickox, of Michigan; Warden J. W. McClaughry and C. E. Felton, of Illinois; Hon. John W. Willis, of Minnesota; P. D. Sims, of Tennessee; and Hon. E. R. Highton, of California.

Some very remarkable papers have been presented on this subject, chief among them George W. Cable's Titanic assault upon the Southern lease system, at Louisville, in 1883. It was absolutely unanswerable, and it sounded the death-knell of that dreadful system. Another great paper was Governor Hoadly's on "The Pardoning Power," in 1886. Uniting the experience of the governor, the jurist, and the penologist, it became a classic. Worthy to rank with these were Superintendent Brockway's "Report on Crimes and Penalties," in 1883; General Brinkerhoff's paper on "Prison Reform," in 1886; and Hon. Joseph Perkins's paper on "County Jails," in 1878.

There has certainly been a great advance in the public thought on this subject, chiefly in the recognition of two truths: first, that the proper object of imprisonment is not to get even with the criminal, but to protect society; second, that the best possible protection of society is the reformation of the criminal. On these two thoughts hangs nearly all of the progress of the past twenty years.

Great gains have been made, yet the work is only begun. The meddlesome hand of the political schemer and the pardon-broker has done much to nullify the wholesome influence of the parole system in several States, resulting in its abandonment in South Dakota. And while the abominations of the county jail system continue and the lease system still prevails in Montana, Nebraska, and several other States, the Conference need not abandon its committee on prison reform.

Hospitals for the Sick.

The architecture and management of hospitals for the sick have received attention in the Conference at intervals. In 1887 Hon. Theodore Roosevelt presented "The Principles of Hospital Construction," contained in the report of the New York State Charities Aid Association. In 1886 Dr. P. S. Conner presented a paper on "The Construction and Management of Hospitals for the Sick." In 1888 a committee on hospitals was established, and Dr. A. B. Ancker presented a paper on "The Municipal Hospital." In 1890 the committee on hospitals, under the leadership of Dr. H. M. Hurd, made an admirable report, with papers by the chairman, Dr. David Judkins, Dr. J. McFadden Gaston, and Dr. Lewis Pitcher. The subject of Training Schools for Nurses was fully discussed for the first time, and four good papers were read on the subject. In 1891 Dr. Hal C. Wyman read a paper on "Hospital Cleanliness."

The subject has not been treated exhaustively except in 1886 and 1890, and the National Conference of Charities and Correction has exercised but little influence upon the development of the hospital system of the country.

Public Relief of the Poor.

It is difficult to show the relation of this Conference to the public relief of the poor. Indirectly, the Conference has exerted an influence through the State Boards of Charities, most of which have supervision of that work in their several States. Directly, the Conference has made an impression upon the public officers of cities and counties who are engaged in the work of caring for the poor.

In the Conference of 1874 much time was given to the discussion of pauperism, — indoor and outdoor relief, settlement laws, and the prevention of pauperism. In 1877 Mr. F. B. Sanborn made a report on "Pauper Statistics," and Professor Wayland made a report on "Outdoor Relief," in which he vigorously opposed public outdoor relief. In 1878 Mr. Henry E. Pellew read a paper on "Outdoor Relief in New York City," which led to a vigorous discussion of the whole subject. In 1879 "The Prevention of Pauperism" was ably discussed by Mrs. C. R. Lowell, Seth Low, Dr. A. Reynolds, and

Henry E. Pellew. In 1880 "The Causes and Prevention of Pauperism" were discussed by a committee of which Dr. Diller Luther was chairman. For several years this committee disappeared from view, but in 1885 a committee composed of Mr. F. B. Sanborn, Hon. A. H. Young, and General R. Brinkerhoff made an excellent report on "The Prevention of Pauperism," advocating interstate co-operation and restricted immigration.

In 1887 "The Cost of Outdoor Relief" was discussed, incidentally, in connection with the work of State Boards of Charities. In 1888 there was, for the first time in several years, an adequate discussion of "Municipal Charities" and "Outdoor Relief," under the leadership of Seth Low and George E. McGonegal. In 1891 the arguments for and against outdoor relief were presented.

The subject of almshouses has been but little discussed. In 1879 Mr. C. S. Watkins ventilated the condition of almshouses in the North-west, and General Brinkerhoff presented model plans for almshouses. In 1884 Hon. H. H. Giles presented a report on "The Construction and Management of Almshouses," and Mr. Sanborn read a paper on "The Management of Almshouses in New England." In 1886 Dr. A. G. Rogers read a paper on "Administration of Jails and Poorhouses." In 1889 two very practical papers were read, one by A. O. Wright on "Employment in Poorhouses," and one by Dr. Hal C. Wyman, presenting a study of the almshouses of Michigan. In 1890 Dr. C. W. Chancellor discussed "Almshouse Abuses and Reforms."

The direct discussions of public poor relief have been fragmentary and unsatisfactory, and the Conference has probably exerted much less influence in this direction than in many others. Indirectly, however, through the discussions of "Charity Organization," a very strong influence has been exerted upon the administration of public and outdoor relief; for the charity organization societies, generally, have made themselves felt in the direction of improved methods of dealing with the outdoor poor.

Immigration.

The subject of immigration engaged the discussion of this Conference at its second meeting in 1875 and again in 1877. The subject was then dropped until 1881, when a committee appointed in the

previous year made a brief and pungent report, recommending national legislation. The committee was continued; and in 1882 Dr. David Rogers reported "that the committee had held several meetings, had taken measures to secure legislation from Congress to prevent the importation of persons of the criminal and dependent class from European cities, and had succeeded in securing such legislation." This law prohibited the landing "of any lunatic, idiot, or any person unable to take care of himself without becoming a public charge." The Secretary of the Treasury was authorized "to enter into contract with such State commissions, boards, or officers as might be designated by the governor of any State" to supervise the affairs of immigrants. Such contracts were made with the State Boards of Charities of New York, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania, and through the officers of these boards the National Conference was kept fully informed from year to year of the workings of this law.

Notwithstanding the operation of this law, it appears from the reports of the committee that a disproportionate number of vicious and pauperized immigrants have been landed. The committee of 1892 advocated a system of consular inspection for intending immigrants, in order to avoid contagion, physical, economical, or moral, which results from unrestricted departure of all classes from other shores to our own. Legislation intended to accomplish this purpose has since been enacted, but in a somewhat different form.

The committee of 1892 considered, also, the important question of interstate migration, and proposed the enactment of a law by Congress for its regulation. Considerable light was thrown upon this subject by the Rev. Samuel A. Eliot's paper on "The Migration of Invalids." This question of interstate migration is increasing in importance with the growth of the country, and is worthy of the most careful study of this Conference. Professional criminals and migratory paupers pass from State to State with great facility, imposing unjust burdens wherever they go.

The Indian Question.

The Indian question was first discussed by the Conference in 1887, when a report was presented by Mr. Garrett, of Philadelphia, and an interesting paper was read by Miss Alice C. Fletcher on "The Allotment of Lands to the Indians," and "Education for the

Indians" was discussed by Rev. R. W. Hill, D.D. The subject was again discussed in the Conference of 1892, when Mr. Garrett discussed "The Indian Policy in its Relation to Crime and Pauperism"; Dr. Hill read a paper on "Indian Citizenship"; Captain Pratt set forth "The Advantages of Mingling Indians with Whites"; Mr. James M. Stuart gave "An Indian's View of the Difficulties besetting him"; and President William F. Slocum discussed "The Education of the Indians."

There is a special propriety in the discussion of the Indian question by the *National* Conference of Charities and Correction for the reason that the Indians are the wards of the general government, and not of any State or local organization.

Public Buildings.

It is a disappointment that Hon. W. P. Letchworth was disabled from the preparation of the report of the committee on the history of public buildings. This subject was opened at the first meeting, in 1874, when Dr. Chapin, of New York, attacked the policy of building palatial hospitals for the insane. A campaign was thus inaugurated, which was continued by Dr. Nathan Allen in 1875, by Governor Tilden and Dr. H. B. Wilbur in 1876, and by Mr. Sanborn in 1877. The sharp reaction in public sentiment against extravagant buildings for the insane was doubtless due, in good part, to the discussions in the Conference.

In 1876 Secretary Fred H. Wines contributed an admirable letter on the general topic of "Institution Building." In 1879 there was a notable report from the committee on public buildings, including a paper from General Brinkerhoff on "Almshouse Buildings," and one by Dr. Walter Channing on "Buildings for the Criminal Insane." In 1880 Dr. John P. Early contributed a paper on "The Ventilation of Buildings of Public Institutions."

In 1882 a plan for a model jail was presented by Dr. Byers, and discussed by the Conference; and the plans of the Kankakee Hospital for the Insane were presented and discussed. In 1884 Mr. Giles discussed plans for poorhouses. In 1886 Dr. P. S. Conner discussed plans for hospitals for the sick. In 1892 an excellent paper was presented on "Public Buildings, Past, Present, and Future," by Mr. George F. Hammond, of Ohio.

Characteristics of the Conference.

The success of the National Conference of Charities and Correction may be traced, in large part, to some of its distinctive characteristics.

First, its catholicity. The Conference has embraced men and women of all creeds and those of the most diverse views; the people who favor institutions and those who oppose institutions: those who believe in outdoor relief and those who would dispense with outdoor relief, those who advocate retributive punishments and those who believe that retribution has no proper place in correctional institutions. Yet there has been a remarkable absence of acrimony and heat in the deliberations of this body. All have shown a disposition to hear and to learn from those who held views other than their own. When the Conference met in St. Paul, a good Orthodox deacon from Ohio was among the delegates. When he saw Dr. Dana of the Congregational Church, Archbishop Ireland of the Roman Catholic Church, Bishop Whipple of the Protestant Episcopal Church, and Rabbi Sonneschein of the Jewish Church sitting on the same platform and united in the one inquiry, "How to elevate the Miserable and save the Erring," he could not understand it. When Bishop Whipple took occasion to speak appreciatively of Archbishop Ireland's work for temperance, and when Rabbi Sonneschein delivered a most fitting and appreciative eulogy upon Bishop Robertson of Missouri, who had lately died, the deacon felt that the millennium must be near at hand.

Second, its optimism. Many of the people who compose this Conference are engaged in what might be considered the most discouraging work in the world,—the reformation of criminals, the redemption of confirmed paupers, the rehabilitation of degraded tramps, the care of the hopelessly insane, the effort to kindle the faint spark of intelligence in the mind of the imbecile. Yet the nineteen volumes which compose the records of this Conference are almost entirely free from any trace of pessimism.

Third, its practicality. There have been frequent expressions of surprise by citizens where the Conference has met that it was so eminently practical. For some reason there is a popular impression that people who devote themselves to charitable work are visionary

or "cranky"; but these who compose this Conference are practical people, accustomed to accomplish practical ends by practical work.

Fourth, its *personnel*. The success and usefulness of the Conference have been very largely due to its *personnel*. President Hayes said at the St. Paul Conference in 1886: "Name the famous prisons, asylums, reformatories, and other similar institutions, and the eminent specialists at their head, and you will find you have named the prominent members of this society. In like manner the students and writers on this subject, and those who have travelled and observed what has been done abroad, are members of this association."

Mention has already been made of some of the active members of the Conference. To mention all whose membership has been an honor to the Conference would be to call the roll of many hundreds. In addition to those already mentioned, I will only name a few out of the many who are worthy of special mention.

Among the most useful and the most interested members of the Conference have been the governors and ex-governors of States. Every governor, by virtue of his office, becomes more or less familiar with the charities and corrections of his State, and discovers the advantages arising from such a Conference. As a result, the governors of the several States have been very ready to send official delegates; and at least twenty-five governors and ex-governors have been members of the Conference, including Governor Long, of Massachusetts; Governor Tilden, of New York; Governor Hoyt, of Pennsylvania; Governor Jackson, of Maryland; Governor Vance, of North Carolina; Governor Hayes, Governor Hoadly, Governor Bishop, and Governor Foster, of Ohio; Governor Bagley and Governor Jerome, of Michigan; Governor Hovey, of Indiana; Governor Collom, of Illinois; Governor Anderson, Governor Blackburn, and Governor Knott, of Kentucky; Governor Fairchild, Governor Smith, and Governor Rusk, of Wisconsin; Governor Ramsey, Governor Pillsbury, and Governor Hubbard, of Minnesota; Governor Crittenden, of Missouri; Governor Routt, of Colorado; and Governor Waterman, of California.

The relation of these governors to the Conference has not been simply a perfunctory matter of official courtesy. They have furnished some of the most important contributions to the Conference. Governor Tilden's address at Saratoga in 1876 touched some of the root principles of true charity. Governor Bagley's address at De-

troit in 1875 announced the principles and methods of care for dependent children which have been steadily coming to the front ever since. No one who heard it has forgotten the fiery courage with which Governor Anderson assailed the lease system at Louisville in 1885. Governor Hoadly's great paper on the "Pardoning Power," read at the St. Paul Conference, was a masterly presentation of the subject.

The Conference has had the co-operation of many of the leading students of sociology,— such men as Carroll D. Wright, of Massachusetts; Professor Graham Taylor, of Connecticut; R. L. Dugdale and Dorman B. Eaton, of New York; General F. A. Walker and Professor W. T. Harris, of Washington; C. T. Reeve, of Indiana; and President John H. Finley, of Illinois; also of such men of letters as Colonel T. W. Higginson, George W. Cable, Charles Dudley Warner, and Julian Hawthorne.

Many of the leading clergymen of the country have been members of the Conference, including such men as Dr. M. McG. Dana, of Massachusetts; Dr. John Hall, of New York; Dr. Washington Gladden, of Ohio; Father Bessonies, of Indiana; Bishop Gillespie, of Michigan; Archbishop Ireland and Bishop Whipple, of Minnesota; President Gates, of Iowa; Bishop Clarkson, of Nebraska; Bishop Robertson and Rabbi Sonneschein, of Missouri; Rabbi Leucht, of Louisiana; and Rev. Horatio Stebbins, D.D., of California.

Many notable women have been enrolled among us: for example, Mrs. L. M. N. Stevens, of Maine; Mrs. Julia C. R. Dorr, of Vermont; Mrs. Clara T. Leonard and Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, of Massachusetts; Mrs. J. K. Barney, of Rhode Island; Mrs. C. R. Lowell and Mrs. Louise C. Houghton, of New York; Clara Barton, of Washington; Mrs. President Hayes, of Ohio; Mrs. Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana; Mrs. Agnes D'Arcambal, of Michigan; Mrs. J. M. Flower, of Illinois; Mrs. T. B. Walker, of Minnesota; Dr. Jennie McCowen, of Iowa; Mrs. A. Jacobs, of Colorado; and Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper and Mrs. S. B. Spear, of California. While these people have contributed to the success of the Conference on the one hand, on the other hand their continued interest has borne standing testimony to its value. Such men and women do not spend their time and their money in travelling to the ends of the country to attend a useless meeting. With such people united in a great purpose, great results were to be expected.

Fifth, the simplicity of its organization. The time of the Conference has not been consumed in parliamentary wrangles or in struggles to amend the constitution, for there was no constitution to amend. There have been no bitter contests over the adoption of platforms. It has been the unwritten law of the Conference that all resolutions should be referred to the Business Committee without debate. Mr. Elmore has been the standing chairman of the Business Committee; and he has kept the most harmless-looking resolutions under water, as the police keep infernal machines. As a result, there have been no factional wars. On one occasion a zealous brother introduced a resolution in favor of the establishment of boards to prevent the adulteration of liquors. The resolution was referred to Mr. Elmore's committee, but the committee neglected to report. The zealous member besieged the chairman of the committee with applications for a report, but was put off from time to time. Finally, he insisted on a report, and the chairman of the committee reported as follows:—

If there is one thing that this committee desires more than another, it is pure liquor; but, in accordance with the uniform practice of this Conference, not to pass resolutions even for the most desirable purposes, the committee respectfully recommends that the resolution be laid upon the table.

The author of the resolution was satisfied, and the report of the committee was appreciated by the Conference in view of Mr. Elmore's well-known abstemious principles.

When differences of opinion have arisen, each side has had equal opportunity to express and print its views; and the effect has probably been quite as great as if a series of resolutions had been passed by a bare majority.

Such has been the work of the National Conference of Charities and Correction for the past twenty years. Let us hope that the work of the coming twenty years may be as earnest, as honest, as harmonious, and as fruitful as that of the past.

It would be a narrow view of the work of this Conference to suppose that it is restricted to the reformation of abuses, and the improvement of methods and systems. It is the work of the Conference to share in the founding of the institutions of a mighty nation;

to determine, to some extent at least, what shall be the policy of this nation for a thousand years to come. It is not simply to correct abuses in a few institutions, but to establish such principles and methods as shall prevent their repetition for generations. It is not simply to reform a few criminals, but, if possible, to stop the springs of crime. I know of no more worthy ambition for any lover of humanity than to have some share, however humble, in organizing forces that shall operate for the blessing of the human race for ages to come.

II.

State Boards of Charities.

HISTORY OF STATE BOARDS.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE.

The history of the central boards of charities representing nineteen States presents a field which, if described within the limits of this paper, must compress mere details and comprise only general lines.

The State Boards which had their beginnings before the first session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction in 1874 are stated in order of time of inauguration, with subsequent changes, if any, of an organic or radical character as follows, to wit: Massachusetts, created in 1863, merged in a general department of health, lunacy, and charity in 1879, again changed by setting off health jurisdiction to a separate body in 1886, and since continued as a board of lunacy and charity; Ohio, established in 1867, abolished in 1871, but re-established in 1876, and reorganized in 1880; New York, inaugurated in 1867, and continued without cessation or change of constitution; North Carolina, beginning in 1869, becoming dormant through failures of legislative appointments after 1873, but revised and reorganized with provision for gubernatorial appointments of members in 1889; Illinois, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island, ushered into being also in 1869, though the last named is a board of trust and control, and out of the common order, and Pennsylvania by act of 1883 constructed within its general department an executive committee in lunacy; Wisconsin and Michigan, introduced in 1871, though the former, as the Board of Charities and Reform, was after its first decade in coexistence with a central body of trust and government, entitled the State Board of Supervision, both of which bodies were consolidated and converted into the

"State Board of Control" in 1891; Connecticut and Kansas, established in 1873, the former being reconstructed in 1884, and the latter being constituted on the model of Rhode Island, which before was unique in its exclusively executive duties of trust and control.

The era of the National Conference, opening with central departments of charities in the respective States just mentioned, eleven in number, has continued with eight accessions in the following States respectively, to wit: New Jersey, introduced by ingrafting charity jurisdiction on the former stock of a State board of health, in 1882; Minnesota, inaugurated in 1883; Indiana, initiated in 1889; South Dakota and Wyoming, originated in 1890, the South Dakota Board being, like those of Rhode Island and Kansas, a board of trustees for the State institutions; Oregon and Colorado, created in 1891; and Montana, just born by legislative act within this quarter of the present year, though as yet hardly organized.

In Congress, last winter, there was pending a bill that passed one house, but failed to become a law, the intent of which was to substitute a board for the Superintendent of Charities in the District of Columbia.

One body unique in organization and in operation is worthy of mention and of imitation. The State Charities Aid Association of New York is a private corporation, among whose members are prominent citizens of New York City, with auxiliary committees in the various counties of the State. It is empowered to appoint visitors to all the charitable institutions of the State, subject to the supervision of the State Board of Charities, except private institutions; and such visitors, under an order of a justice of the Supreme Court, have powers similar to those of visitors appointed by the board. The association makes an annual report to the State Board. The voluntary methods of the corporate and private body are contrasted with those of the official body in various respects. The freedom of the association in appealing to the public press, which the State Board cannot so well or properly invoke, gives it great advantages in promptly correcting abuses by bringing to bear the force of public opinion. Many of the most beneficent reforms have been promoted by this society of ladies and gentlemen. The State Care law respecting the insane was introduced by them under the guidance of Miss Louisa Lee Schuyler, who has been recognized as

the leader. This valuable aid to the State Board of New York may well become a precedent in other and especially the larger States.

It will be observed that, of the thirteen original States, six preceded and one followed the commencement of the National Conference in beginning their respective boards, and that, of the whole number of States, forty-four, not more than nineteen have inaugurated such departments, of which but eight belong to the two decades of the Conference; while during its first decade only two States initiated, and during its first period of nine years no State introduced, such a central board or department of charities.

It is evident that the National Conference is the effect, and not the cause, or the consequence, and not the source, of State Boards.

But the reason for the interval of nine years is not so obvious. An hypothesis naturally suggested is that after the settlement of the political and moral issues growing out of the Civil War, and during the recovery from the financial revulsion of 1873, the nervous and mental energy of the people was diverted into materialistic and selfish rather than spiritualistic or ethical channels. But this supposition can be but tentative, for in the States which had created their respective central boards there was continual progress in enlightened views and altruistic aims during the whole of the first as well as of the second decade of the Conference. A better theory for the particular facts which have put us on inquiry is the general law of rhythmic motion, making all movements of events in nature and of affairs in society proceed not with uniformity, but with variations. Moreover, the States leading in material and moral advancement, representing the majority of the population and political power of the country, having preceded the National Conference, left almost hopelessly in the rear the residue of the older ones less provident and progressive, none of which, except New Jersey and Indiana, have yet joined the front of the forward movement; while three-quarters of the meagre re-enforcements of the two decades of the Conference have been recruited from the younger and growing commonwealths of the West.

The various titles of the respective boards do not uniformly or accurately, though approximately they may, indicate corresponding variances in their functions. Among such comparative appellations are the following examples; namely, the "State Board of Lunacy and Charity" of Massachusetts, the "Board of State Charities" of

Ohio, the "Board of Public Charities" of Pennsylvania, the "Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities" of Illinois, and the "State Board of Corrections and Charities" of Michigan. The most concise and comprehensive of all the official names is the title adopted in New York; namely, the "State Board of Charities." The qualifying word "State" properly designates the jurisdiction, but untruly defines the institutions subject to it, which may be county as well as State, or even private as well as public. The term "charities" in its liberal and reasonable sense, and in accordance with modern and approved ideas, justifies an interpretation large enough to include "reform" and "correction," which express the medical and surgical aspects of the benevolent care and treatment of the delinquent and the degenerate, in prisons and hospitals, for the protection of society.

That this consideration has become prevalent among thinking persons, if not always prevailing in practical politics, is due largely to the influence exerted through these State Departments of Charities, which have done most beneficent work in improving the environment and administration of State prisons and reformatories and of county jails and penitentiaries.

The Illinois Board in its first report justifies the idea of prison reform, which has since been realized in the introduction of the Elmira system at Pontiac.* The Ohio organization, which has for its *ex-officio* president the governor of the State, and for its active chairman the president of the National Prison Association, has secured jail classification, and in prisons the reformatory methods of parole and indeterminate sentences, and the first system of cumulative sentences for misdemeanants as well as felons, which has been further advanced and perfected by legislation of this year.† The Massachusetts department obtained the reformatory for women in 1877, and subsequently the reformatory for men, with indeterminate sentences.‡ The New York statute declares that the three State prisons "shall continue to be maintained for the security and reformation of convicts in this State."§ This principle was applied in the investigation of Clinton Prison in 1891, by a commission composed of the president of the State Board of Charities, the secretary and executive officer of the State Board of Health, and the secretary of the Prison Association of the State.‖ and is applicable to each

* Illinois Report of 1870, p. 195. † Proceedings, 1887, p. 97. ‡ *Ibid.* Mr. Sanborn

§ New York Laws of 1889, chap. 382. ‖ New York Reports, 1892, appended paper.

of the three State prisons as well as to the six State reformatories, juvenile and adult, among which the one at Elmira for men is conceded to be the best model in the world. In the supervision of these reformatories the State Board of Charities finds the ideal realized in law, and tending to become more and more actualized in fact. Michigan has, in this field, furnished an example of efforts which, seemingly abortive, will bear ultimate fruits in promoting the enacting of a bill for paroles of convicts and for indeterminate sentences. Among the more recent boards that of Minnesota is an instance of influence wisely directed in securing the establishment of a State Reformatory for young men instead of a second prison; and of a system of grades with marks, and of paroles in the State prison.*

Prison reform has been promoted by these State Departments of Charities, through expressions of opinions in their respective reports, and in the Proceedings of the National Conference, and by indirect influence as well as active endeavors, even where their jurisdiction has not extended to correctional or reformatory institutions.

The work of child-saving has been advanced and guided by these central organizations. Their series of reports in the older States show that this work, while shaped in various forms of relief, as in the boarding out method in Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, and in the contrasting system of orphan asylums in New York, in the Michigan State Public School, in the similar system in Minnesota, and in the county children's homes of Ohio and Indiana has, through legal enactments and institutions, resulted in releasing hundreds of thousands of infant members of society from the pauperizing influences of the poorhouse as well as the demoralizing influences of degenerate parents.† The earlier efforts in this field of reform have been worthily and successfully followed in most of the States which have established these central departments of charity, and through the agency or influence of such departments, irrespective of their jurisdiction over private asylums or schools or societies created for this good work.

The treatment of the insane has been determined or largely influenced by these State Departments of Charities. In the great States

* Letter of Mr. Hart, secretary of Minnesota Board, dated March 28, 1893.

† Ninth Report of New York, supplementary report by Commissioner Letchworth, pp. 96 to 730; Pennsylvania Report, 1891, p. 10; Massachusetts Report, 1865, pp. 20 to 26; Pennsylvania Report, 1870, pp. 48 to 54; New York Laws of 1875, chap. 173; *Ibid.*, 1878, chap. 404; Conference, 1887, p. 94.

of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Illinois, State care of the chronic classes, as well as the acute cases of the insane, has been thus secured with improvements in construction and administration of hospitals and asylums. To Illinois is awarded the credit of establishing in the Kankakee Hospital the first system of detached wards. Though a few State Boards have favored or tolerated compromises retaining certain features of the pauper or county management with poorhouse associations, all of them, it is believed, without exception, have effected great improvements and reforms in matters of insanity.*

Charity organizations in cities are due in large measure to the State Organizations of Charities; for, though the former are voluntary and private, and have comparatively narrow and special fields, they are perhaps the most important of all local bodies in the scientific study and practical application of principles for the prevention of pauperism, and are entitled to governmental as well as corporate and individual aid. The New York Board, with its report to the legislature for the year 1878, transmitted a paper prepared on this subject by Rev. S. Humphreys Gurteen, the founder of the Buffalo organization one year before, the first in America, and within ten years after the successful operation of such societies in the leading cities of England. Subsequently the celebrated Charity Organization Society of New York City was inaugurated under the auspices of the New York State Board, though the offspring has long since grown far beyond the need of tutelage.† These relations indicate similar connections and influences in other cities and States.

But the reverse order occurred recently in Indiana, where the Charity Organization Society of Indianapolis was made an efficient cause contributing to the evolution of the State Board under the creating and guiding spirit of Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch, deceased, a patron saint of philanthropy, of blessed memory.

Federal legislation for the regulation of immigration has been secured largely by the direct representations of the State Boards of New York and Massachusetts against the invasions of foreign criminals, lunatics, and paupers assisted to American shores by families, charitable societies, municipalities, and other interested agencies

*New York Laws, 1890, chap. 126; New York Reports, 1888, pp. 63 to 311; Conference Proceedings, 1891; Paper on the New York Law, pp. 85 to 97.

†New York Report, 1879, p. 197; Directory of Charity Organization Society of New York City.

abroad; while by the same Boards State laws have been successfully invoked to remedy, so far as possible in ways at once constitutional and practicable, the laches of the national government in failing to exercise its supreme power to protect the citizens of these exposed communities.*

The National Conference of Charities and Correction — composed of representatives of the New York, Massachusetts, Wisconsin, and Connecticut Boards, at its first session in connection with the American Social Science Association in 1874, and similarly constituted with delegates from the same Boards, and Ohio, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and other State departments, at its sixth session, when it began its independent existence — presents in its origin and history of twenty years a mission and a record of results largely informed and impressed by the State Boards.†

The economy effected and the humanity fostered and furthered by these State organizations of charity in eleemosynary and correctional institutions, public and private, and the remedial and reformatory legislation and administration introduced and promoted by them fill hundreds of books of annual reports, and form large parts of as many volumes of session laws.

To go further into the interesting particulars of the work of these State departments would be to transcend the limits of this article, as well as to trespass upon the topics assigned to other committees of this Conference.

Inquiry, however, into the constitution and changes of these boards with comparisons among them will not trench upon such confines, and may elicit information explaining the workings and issues of these bodies; for though, as already intimated, they may be influential respectively in promoting reforms outside their formal jurisdictions, each one is, of course, most potential within the sphere of its authority.

The jurisdiction of the respective State Boards respecting reformatory and correctional institutions, with changes, if any, during the last twenty years, may be set forth briefly as follows: The Massachusetts Board was authorized to make prison inspection from 1863 to 1879, when it was reconstituted, but since that period has had

* Proceedings, 1887, pp. 98–100.

† Conference, 1874, reprinted from *Journal of Social Science*, p. 3; Conference of 1879, ditto, p. 1; Conference, 1882, pp. 12–14.

no authority over correctional or reformatory institutions, save State schools, which, unlike institutions in some of the Western States, similarly entitled, are juvenile reformatories for delinquents.* In New York the Prison Association of the State has jurisdiction of State prisons, county penitentiaries, jails, and reformatories; yet the State Board of Charities has authority to visit all these correctional and reformatory institutions except the three State prisons which the superintendent of prisons governs, but, in deference to the Prison Association, has exercised its power only in relation to the various State reformatories, adult and juvenile, and private protectorates.† The Ohio laws confer upon its board supervision of prisons, jails, and reformatories, and make special mention of its duty to visit them. ‡ The Illinois Board has never had any jurisdiction over its penitentiaries, but is authorized to visit and report on jails, only however, as places where the insane may be confined; and its power of supervision respecting the Reform School at Pontiac, given in 1875, was withdrawn in 1891.§ Pennsylvania and the other States having boards not already specified, except Connecticut, give to them respectively powers of some sort concerning prisons or reformatories or both.‖ But the statement in a former report of committee, "That prison inspection is the duty of all the other State Boards" than Connecticut, Massachusetts, and New York, is erroneous. ¶

Institutions for the insane of a public nature are generally, with private asylums to a less extent, under the supervision of the respective State Boards. In Illinois the commissioners have power to define hospital districts and to order transfers of patients. Notable changes during the last two decades have occurred in three large States as follows: In Massachusetts lunacy jurisdiction was obtained by the new board in 1879, sixteen years after the establishment of

* Massachusetts Reports of 1865, pp. 3 and 4, and 1892, pp. 1, 2, and 3; National Conference of 1887, pp. 76 and 97.

† New York Laws of 1867, chap. 951, and of 1873, chap. 571.

‡ Ohio Law of 1867, § 656; Ohio first Report for 1867, p. 1; National Conference of 1887, pp. 76–97.

§ Illinois Report of 1870, pp. 3, 4, with law prefixed; National Conference of 1867, pp. 76–79.

‖ Reports of Pennsylvania, 1870, pp. 9, 13, 16; Rhode Island, 1869, p. 23; Minnesota, 1884, with Act of 1883, § 2; Indiana, 1890, pp. 27, 30; Michigan, 1890, p. 74; Colorado, 1892, with Act of 1891, § 2; Connecticut, 1884, with Revision of Laws, 1875, part 13, chap. 1, title 3, p. 219; National Conference of 1887, pp. 76–97.

¶ Proceedings, 1887, p. 76; Pennsylvania Report, 1870, pp. 9–13–16.

the first board. In Pennsylvania an executive committee on the insane has been organized within the board in pursuance of law enacted in 1883. In New York, by act of 1889 and amendatory acts of 1890, the Commission in Lunacy with powers of control has been created, but without affecting the prior authority of the State Board of Charities to inspect, investigate under oath, and supervise the State hospitals and private asylums.*

But while most of the State departments of charity have supervision of prisons, reformatories, and public hospitals, as well as State, county, and municipal institutions of general eleemosynary character, few of them have general duties or powers respecting charitable corporations. On this point the paper read by the committee in the Conference of 1887, saying that all the boards possess certain powers "in regard to municipal, local, and private charities," † is in error. The New York law first excluded such private institutions; but, as amended in 1873, it now includes them,— in number about five hundred charitable corporations,— within the general powers of the board including inspection and examination under oath, with collection of statistics and reports to the legislature. The act of 1883 imposes the certified consent of the board as a condition precedent to the incorporation of any and every orphan asylum and institution having the charge of children.‡ Pennsylvania has from the beginning resembled New York in jurisdiction extending to charitable corporations.§ A few other States give their respective boards supervision of particular species of private institutions and provisions of charity. The Massachusetts body has the care and maintenance of indigent and neglected children boarded in private families, and the visitation of all minor wards of the State in families, as well as supervision of delinquent children in the State schools; the care of insane patients boarded in private families; and the supervision of insane patients in private asylums, as well as in public hospitals.‖ The Connecticut Board visits incorporated hospitals, and one of its managers is on each county board for dependent and neglected children.¶ The Illinois Board can inspect and report upon private insane asy-

* Reports of Massachusetts, 1892, p. 1; Session Laws of Pennsylvania, 1883; Session Laws of New York, 1889, chap. 283, and 1890, chap. 273.

† p. 376.

‡ Laws of New York, 1867, chap. 951; 1873, chap. 571; 1883, chap. 446; Ninth Conference, p. 35.

§ Report of Pennsylvania, 1870, pp. 9–13–16.

‖ Report of Massachusetts, 1892, p. 3; Act of 1891, § 2.

¶ Connecticut Laws, part 13, chap. 1, title 3, p. 19, and Laws of 1883, and Report of 1884, p. 3.

lums, and upon such industrial schools for boys or girls as have been authorized by the governor to receive inmates committed by the courts; but it has no further jurisdiction over charitable corporations, though, by the courtesy of their managers, it occasionally makes returns respecting them in its reports.* In Colorado and Montana charitable institutions of a private nature, receiving public aid, are within the jurisdiction of its State Board.

Turning now our attention from the classes of institutions under the respective State departments of charities to the powers over such institutions which are within the jurisdiction of such departments, we observe that one common principle of supervision, with or without administrative authority, is the general characteristic. This principle has been preserved in its simplicity in some States, while in others it has been combined with executive functions in particular matters, and in several States has been converted into powers of trust and exclusive control. Such entire departure from the standard of advisory authority has been taken in Rhode Island, Kansas, South Dakota, and Wisconsin, in none of which is there any remnant or vestige of power of supervision left, unless an officer can oversee himself. The boards of these four States are in direct control, as trustees of the institutions within their respective jurisdictions, and can inspect and advise only as they can inspect and advise themselves.

It is interesting to note, by the way, that three of these four exceptional bodies have been organized within the third and last decade of the establishment of State Boards of Charities, and within the second and last decade of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.†

All the States, excluding the first three of the four mentioned, have first organized their respective departments of charity with simply supervisory and advisory functions, and have restricted other powers, if any, subsequently superimposed, to duties administrative rather than executive, or relative to special matters or particular institutions, or negative in their nature, resembling the interdiction of a veto rather than the direction or initiative of control. The New York Board, having been created in 1867, among other things to visit charitable and reformatory institutions, in its discretion to examine

* Report of Illinois, 1870, p. 3, and letter of Rev. F. H. Wines, dated March 23, 1893.

† Report of Rhode Island, 1869, p. 23; of Kansas, 1891–92, p. 3; of Wisconsin, 1892, pp. 1 and 2.

their trustees, officers, and employees under oath, and to report the results of their inspections and investigations, with their opinion on all applications for State aid, for any purposes other than usual expenses, has since its establishment received three successive grants of distinct species of special powers, two of which are still retained, as follows: in 1871, authority to exempt counties from the operation of the Willard Asylum Act, or to direct them to send their indigent chronic insane to the said State asylum, which authority, provisional in its character, and originally intended to meet a temporary need, has been abrogated by the exclusive State Care Act; in 1873, commission to provide for the support and care of State paupers, and the removal of any of them to the State or county where they may have a legal settlement or friends willing to maintain them, with supplemental authority in 1880 to return alien paupers to foreign countries whence they have been assisted to emigrate; and, in 1883, as already stated, veto power to prevent the incorporation of institutions for the charge or disposal of children.* Pennsylvania inserted in her system, three years after its first development, administrative functions concerning county jails and poorhouses, plans for the construction of which county commissioners are accordingly required to submit to her State Board for criticism; and eleven years subsequently ingrafted on its committee in lunacy executive duties already alluded to respecting the insane.† The Massachusetts bureau system, years after its inception, undertook executive duties prescribed by law, among other things removals and discharges from, as well as transfers among, State hospitals for the insane.‡ The Ohio organization at the beginning provided that plans for county jails and infirmaries should be submitted to criticism, but prescribed no veto power or executive duties in the central body; and neither at its re-establishment in 1876 nor its revision in 1880 were the additional powers granted more than supervisory and advisory.§

Illinois has reorganized her charity department so as to connect

* Laws of New York, 1871, chap. 713; of 1873, chap. 661; of 1880, chap. 549; of 1883, chap. 446 of 1890, chap. 126.

† Report of Pennsylvania, 1870, pp. 9–13–16; Laws of Pensylvania, 1872 and 1883; Conference Proceedings, P. C. Garrett, of Pennsylvania, pp. 36, 37.

‡ Reports of Massachusetts, 1865, p. 3, and 1892, pp. 1, 2, and 3.

§ Laws of Ohio, title 5, chap. 4, as amended April 15, 1880, § 656; Fifth Report of Board for 1880, p. 7.

the exercise of supervision with administrative duties, without much executive authority; for, while there is no grant of power to make appointments, control expenditures, or issue orders governing trustees or officers of institutions, the department is empowered to audit their accounts, to prevent them from drawing money out of the State treasury until such accounts are satisfactorily settled, to define the districts of the State hospitals, to change the same, and to make corresponding transfers of patients.* Michigan has also moved in supplementary and comparatively late legislation, and through similar ways provided for her central body a dispensation of checks without control, requiring its examination of plans of buildings, estimates of appropriations, contracts in the expenditure thereof, and other special matters; and, respecting the one exceptional county asylum for the insane in the State, requiring its certificate whether the patients therein have been properly maintained, such affirmative and favorable report being made by law governing this institution a condition precedent to State aid. In Minnesota plans for poorhouses, jails, and lock-ups, must be submitted to the central board for suggestion and criticism; and the statistics of pauperism and crime are in its charge, and the accounts of the State institutions are under its supervision, but no executive duties are committed to it.† The Indiana Board is in an early stage, and is still homogeneous in its supervisory nature.

The agreement between the average type of these State departments of charity, as found in their reports and the statutes governing them already cited, and their prototype or antitype or informing idea, as expressed by their respective representatives in the Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, is remarkable; while between particular organizations and certain conceptions pertaining to their respective States there is even more complete correspondence.

In the eighth session of the National Conference, being the third of its existence independent of the American Social Science Association, General Brinkerhoff, of Ohio, summed up an instructive article as follows:—

The outcome of our inquiries, therefore, in regard to Boards of State Charities, would seem to indicate that, in the main, what is

* Report of Illinois, 1870, p. 3.

† Letter of H. H. Hart, secretary of Minnesota Board, March 28, 1893.

wanted in their establishment is to secure for our public institutions thorough inspection and intelligent criticism, by competent persons, outside of their management. Human nature is so constituted that no one can give an unbiassed judgment upon his own conduct. . . . It would seem, therefore, that a Board of State Charities should occupy a position purely advisory.*

These conclusions were supported by citations from the opinion of Judge Robertson, president of the Illinois Board, and by his independent article on the "Utility of State Boards of Public Charities." † In the succeeding conference a paper by Professor Chace set forth the Rhode Island model of a body of trust and control. ‡ A partial reconciliation of the conflicting claims was reached in discussing this paper, Professor Chace conceding that his system could not be applied in the larger States, General Brinkerhoff admitting that it might do for Rhode Island, and Mr. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, holding that "the duties of a central board are to be regulated strictly by the circumstances of the case," but "that in every State" it "should have power to regulate immigration," and to administer in matters of lunacy and health.§ Bishop Gillespie, of Michigan, at the end of the second decade of the boards and of the first decade of the National Conference, commends the views of General Brinkerhoff.‖ But Mr. Sanborn, in the fourteenth session, reports the opinion of the committee on State Boards, that their changes in the direction of control "are not the result of chance, but indicate . . . that such authority, when once created in a State, will naturally increase." This view, however, does not distinguish between executive powers in special fields, as respecting alien and State paupers in Massachusetts and New York, and administrative powers involving authority to make reports instead of orders, and at the most to veto rather than to control.¶ In the sixteenth session of the National Conference the committee, consisting of Mr. Hart of Minnesota, Mr. Wines of Illinois, and Mr. Faulkner of Kansas, declared that "the majority of your committee are of the opinion that the advisory plan is the better one, especially in the inception of the work of a board," and that, "as the State grows, executive functions can be added if necessity

* National Conference of 1881, p. 49. † *Ibid.*, p. 58. ‡ National Conference of 1882, p. 23.

§ *Ibid.*, pp. 25 to 35. ‖ Proceedings, 1884, pp. 19 and 20. ¶ Proceedings, 1887, p. 103.

arises," Mr. Faulkner dissenting in favor of executive authority carried to the extent of exclusive trust and control.* In a thoughtful article from Rev. F. H. Wines, secretary of the Illinois Board, read at the seventeenth session, his own conviction in accordance with the generally received opinion, is given as follows: —

There are, of course, arguments which may be advanced in favor of such consolidated control, even in Kansas and Wisconsin, where the institutions are in different localities, widely remote from each other; and these arguments are not without weight. But the generally received opinion is that it is better, all things considered, that each institution shall have its own trustees, entirely devoted to its interests, and that the central supervising board should possess as little executive authority or power as possible. . . . It is not to be expected that the managers of an institution will report their own failings and mistakes, or that they will be impartial critics of their own official conduct. Without an intermediate board, whose functions it is to inspect and to criticise the management, pecuniary and other, abuses are likely to grow up, unchecked and unexposed, until they come to a head, and a public scandal is the consequence. . . . The wiser course, however, seems to us to be that which eleven States have adopted,— namely, to give to each institution a complete autonomy,—. . . and then to create a supervisory board of inspection, and make it the centre of the entire charitable system, the agency by which all its parts are to be co-ordinated and brought into harmonious relations with each other. †

In New York the Commission in Lunacy, which, having been advocated by the standing committee of the State Board of Charities, was created by the legislature in 1889, with executive powers subsequently increased to degrees of governmental control,‡ in its first report recommended the transfer to it of all the inquisitorial and supervisory powers of the board, on which recommendation the State Board joined issue in its next annual report,§ from which excerpts are here introduced in illustration of principles, as follows: —

The powers of the board relating to the insane are neither in conflict nor in concurrence with the special or principal powers of the commission. The jurisdiction of each body is as distinct from that of the other as it is from that of the local board of any State hospital.

* Proceedings, 1889, pp. 96 to 98. † Proceedings, 1890, pp. 64, 65.

‡ New York Laws, 1889, chap. 283; *Ibid.*, 1890, chap. 273. § Report, 1890, pp. 26 to 30.

The powers of the board are simply supervisory, without any executive or administrative functions. The powers of the commission as construed by it are executive and administrative, and are more absolute than those ever committed to a similar body in this State.

The board is composed of members from the respective judicial districts of the State, who work without pay or emolument of any sort. The commission is composed of three paid members.

The board is representative of all sections and interests. The commission stands for centralized power of the most absolute character.

The board is too numerous for executive functions, but is for that reason best fitted to exercise supervision in a catholic, liberal, and just spirit. The commission, composed of medical, legal, and lay specialists, like the superintendents of the hospitals, is so compact as to promote the full exercise of executive powers, but at the same time to preclude such reviews and supervision as may become necessary in the future. . . .

The board is of opinion that the underlying principle which forbids the giving of absolute executive powers to the body exercising general supervision, also and alike forbids the restriction of supervision to a select, compact, and unique body exercising absolute executive powers.

The position of New York respecting charitable corporations—which, though by constitutional provision prevented from receiving State aid, do, in many cases, receive contributions from counties and cities for the support of their indigent inmates — is that such private institutions receiving public funds, and administering them by self-perpetuating trustees, are peculiarly within the rightful jurisdiction of the State department; and, further, that such close corporations, whether receiving public aid or not, are, from the nature of their trusts, and their relations as custodians of private endowments or contributions for beneficence, intervening between benefactors and beneficiaries, always proper subjects of the statutory supervision which is committed to the State Board.

There is analogy between this authority derived from statute and the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court on its equity or chancery side, derived from common law without the sanction of legislatures, which the justices of such courts do not always appreciate or even apprehend.

The conclusion of the whole matter, from both reason and authority verified by experience, is that the unifying principle of State

Boards of Charities requires them to exercise the duty of supervision, which is inconsistent with executive functions of trust and control respecting the institutions and interests to be inspected; that the administrative authority, if any, committed to them, should consist of veto or negative rather than controlling or initiative powers, and include such as relate to the audit of accounts, the certificate on applications with estimates requesting State aid for objects other than ordinary expenses, which, of course, the legislature and governor would sustain or overrule in their sovereign discretion, and as condition precedent approval of the incorporation of private charities under general laws; but that executive powers affirmative and absolute in their nature should be delegated to them never for the exclusive government of institutions, and only, if ever, for duties in special fields such as pertain to the transfers or removals and discharges of insane patients from public hospitals, and the return of State and alien paupers; and that in the larger States the evolution of separate departments or commissions for the governmental control of State institutions, with or without the abrogation of the local managers, as well as the multiplication of charitable corporations, requires the continued existence of one general State Board of Supervision, divorced from duties of executive character, the jurisdiction of which should be as to area and number coextensive with eleemosynary and correctional institutions, both public and private.

Every State Board has intimate and organic relations respectively with the three branches of government. Upon the judiciary it may depend for the issue or enforcement of orders; and in each State where its Supreme Court has equity as well as other original jurisdiction the unwritten authority of the court and the statutory authority of the board are in many respects co-ordinate, and oftener should be contributory. But the chief magistrate has it in his power to promote or defeat the enterprises of the board in many ways, including the approval or veto of bills, the commendation or disparagement of measures in his messages and official communications, and often the appointment of members on whose character and competency depend its standing, influence, and usefulness. The legislature, however, with the chief executive, is the supreme and absolute master of the situation, holding the key not only to the remedial legislation and necessary appropriation, but also to the continued existence of the board.

The reports of various boards in former years and discussions in the National Conference, together with present advices, show that the blight of partisan politics has not infrequently brought to naught the promises of fruitage. This shameful feature of the two decades is prominent to-day. As in Ohio Dr. Gundry, the eminent alienist, was compelled to seek asylum in the friendly State of Maryland, so now in Illinois Philip G. Gillette, LL.D., the superintendent of the Institution of the Deaf, has resigned to avoid removal on purely partisan grounds; and Dr. Richard S. Dewey, the accomplished superintendent of the Eastern Hospital at Kankakee, has been removed by the new party in power, which threatens to displace also the secretary of the State Board, Rev. Frederick Howard Wines, who has given his best years and thoughts to the organization and administration of charity, with good results to society as well as to its wards of the delinquent, defective, degenerate, and dependent classes.

It is to be hoped that New York, the Empire State, may not make this poisonous mixture of politics with philanthropy, but may preserve its charity administration free and pure. The writer would trust that on reflection there may be verified the words which he uttered orally and spontaneously in debate in the National Conference of 1891, as follows: —

> If there is any one here credulous enough to believe that the doings of the great political parties in the State of New York are devious or dark, it is not for me to affirm or deny. It is more convenient for me to play the part of the agnostic. But I do wish to declare that, as a rule, politics in the State of New York do not enter into the legislation or administration of State charities. Where we have politics that interpose obstacles, they are the petty politics of the county, and not often do they prevent reform.

Illustrations relating to State politics and institutions showing the co-operation of Democrats and Republicans were there given on these statements;* but exception should have been made respecting the State prisons.

In order to hinder, if not to inhibit or fully prevent the putting of the poison of partisan politics in the administration of charity, the State department having jurisdiction in charity, it is submitted,

* Proceedings Eighteenth Session, pp. 381, 382.

should be established, and its powers should be defined by the fundamental law. There are precedents for this principle in several States. Express authority for, if not the creation of, the State Board of Supervision in North Carolina and the State Board of Trust in Kansas, is given in their respective State constitutions; and the present State Board of Charities and Reforms in Wyoming is created by its constitution. These examples, it must be conceded, are not very encouraging. Even less inspiring is the somewhat similar provision in the organic law of New York creating the office of Superintendent of State Prisons, which is, however, believed to be rather an anomaly than an analogy; for certainly it is an instance of failure in operation, not having fulfilled its intention of purification of the prison administration.

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But the principle, though as yet unverified by experiments, seems to be sound, and would call for the creation of State Boards of Charities by the will of the people expressed directly in the constitutions of the respective commonwealths, free from the interferences of legislatures and the changing influences of politics. Organic laws are required for the purity and efficiency of these unique departments of charities, and also for their continued existence without change or conversion into political bodies of control, and as well for their dignity and influence among multiplying State Boards and commissions, which in New York now reach about thirty in number.

The practical application of principles governing and reconciling humanity and economy, proper paternalism and prudence, in the care of dependent, defective, degenerate, and delinquent members of society, requires the scientific study of these first principles in the light of experience. To this end two means are most conducive, namely: first, the collection and collation of data by the specialists of the State Boards, respectively, and their reports on a uniform basis of statistics, inclusive of all particular fields of administration, whether or not represented by special commissions; and, second, the creation of libraries of treatises on these underlying principles. These objects are set forth in the Proceedings of the National Conference and in the reports of the State Boards.* In Ohio the bibliography of insanity, penology, criminology, pauperism, public charities and institutions, has been recruited with the most modern and needed works on these subjects, which have been placed on the

* Conference, 1889, p. 104; Ohio Report, 1891, pp. 49, 50.

shelves of the State Library through the co-operation of the Governor, the Secretary of State, and the State Librarian with the State Board. In New York the State Board of Regents of the University has proposed to the State Board of Charities that the two boards should co-operate in establishing such a library.

Autonomy in the government of public and private institutions of charity, with freedom of development on individual lines, and of differentiation which is one of the laws of evolution, is a desideratum which has been prominent in the foregoing discussions of principles and powers. Similar variations are found among the State Boards of Charities, the annals of which indicate such differentiations in developments on separate lines in correspondence with different environments, but generally upon the one underlying principle of advisory authority without executive powers, which unifies without producing uniformity.

The history of the State Boards of Charities during the two decades of the National Conference has been one of thoughts as well as of things, showing that conceptions expressed in the reports of the boards and Proceedings of the Conference have become realized in institutions and established interests, and promising that the ideas approved to-day shall be translated into the facts actually proved to-morrow.

Signed by members of Committee.

Oscar Craig, *New York.*
W. F. Slocum, Jr., *Colorado.*
Herbert A. Forrest, *Michigan.*
Samuel G. Smith, *Minnesota.*
M. D. Follett, *Ohio.*

III.

Charity Organization.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON HISTORY OF CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

BY CHARLES D. KELLOGG, CHAIRMAN.

Under more than a score of names there may be enumerated ninety-two associations in the United States and the Dominion of Canada as in existence in 1893, which profess loyalty to the principles characteristic of the movement known as the Organization of Charity. Of these the greatest variation of names arises among the twenty societies originally inaugurated as Relief Societies but which have adopted in part the methods of Charity Organization Societies or Associated Charities after their formation, and which are in correspondence with them (Appendix A). Of the whole number sixty-five (65) have made returns, with widely varying precision and completeness, to the Committee on the History of Charity Organization of this Twentieth Annual Conference of Charities and Correction, and upon these returns this report is based.

History.

Conditions Twenty Years Ago.— Twenty years ago, in the sense of an agency for bringing charitable and municipal relief organizations into concert of action, there were no Charity Organization Societies in America. There were in many cities voluntary general relief societies professedly ready to undertake any sort of humane task within their ability. In some instances, they laid claim to most approved maxims of work, such as raising the dependent poor into independence, the need of investigation as a basis of

relief, the duty of repressing imposture. Rarely they employed the Friendly Visitor, and made employment the basis of relief. But, as they were invariably distributors of material aid, this function submerged all others, and they sank into the sea of common almsgiving, appealing to their patrons for support on the ground that the money given to them would enable them to enlarge the number of their beneficiaries or increase the amount of their gifts, and attracting the needy to their doors with the hope of loaves and fishes. In many quarters there was no lack of judicious reasoning, or of admission that the moral nature and the social lot of the poor were large factors in the problem of pauperism; but the efforts to extirpate it were feeble and incidental, not dominant. On every side the current of public sentiment was that every penny spent in administration was so much abstracted from the poor, and that the best management was that which entailed the least cost in getting bread and soup to the hungry, and shelter, fuel, and clothing to the cold. Even in religious missions to the extremely depressed it was felt that a man should not be called upon to hear the gospel in rags or on an empty stomach, and their dismal chapels were largely frequented by sordid dissemblers who conformed for gain, and shunned by those in whom a large measure of self-respect still prevailed.

Relief Twenty Years Ago.— Legal relief consisted of outdoor and indoor systems, the latter being universally institutional; and therefore it only falls incidentally within the scope of Charity Organization efforts. The practice of legal outdoor relief differed greatly in different communities. In New York City the provision for this form of aid was comparatively slight, and consisted in appropriations for fuel distribution and for the adult blind in equally inadequate amounts, and a trifling sum for medicines at the City Hospital. In some cities, like Buffalo, Philadelphia and Brooklyn, large appropriations of money were made for outdoor relief, and its administration did not escape the suspicion of corrupt and political taint at times. In New England cities and towns, overseers of the poor or selectmen distributed, much at their caprice, the relief provided by taxation. But from every quarter testimony arises that the system was without adequate safeguards of investigation, tests of destitution, or means of hindering duplication of relief from several sources simultaneously, or of making the relief adequate to the necessity. Private almsgiving, for the most part through organized and often

incorporated societies, was profuse and chaotic, while still behind the demands made upon it, and was dispersed in tantalizing doles miserably inadequate for effectual succor where the need was genuine, and dealt out broadcast among the clamorous and impudent. Amid all this mean prodigality there were almoners seriously and studiously in earnest to make the relief they gave beneficent and not injurious; but the system, or rather want of it, and the exaggerated conceptions of their resources excited among the poor, degraded and impeded their labors. In fact, twenty years ago those in the United States who thought that the function of relief could be lifted above temporary material aid were few in number and but just beginning to be heard. Indeed, it was the industrial depression following the commercial crisis which began in the autumn of 1873, throwing multitudes out of work and making a heavy draft upon the benevolent, which seems to afford the starting-point for the examination and reformation of the prevailing methods of charity.

Beginnings.—In 1872 the nearest approximation to Charity Organization to be found in the United States was the Chardon Street Building in Boston. It was erected in 1869 by joint contributions from the city and personal subscribers, in pursuance of a plan first promulgated by Hon. Robert C. Winthrop in 1857, and subsequently advocated in the annual reports of the Boston Provident Association, of which he was the president. Under its roof are the offices of the official boards and the principal voluntary relief societies of the city. The economy and advantages of proximity for the purpose of exchanging information and concerting measures of dealing with applicants for help had been clearly pointed out, and the existence of this building facilitated the subsequent systematic development of registration and co-operation in that city.

Germantown.—Although the movement to organize charities in the cities of the United States everywhere traces its origin to the London Society and its publications, or to the discussions which arose concerning it, there were several independent centres in which it appeared nearly simultaneously in this country. In 1874 Rev. Charles G. Ames led in the formation, upon London models, in Germantown, a suburban ward of Philadelphia, of an association which employed household visitors to investigate applicants for aid, availed itself of the soup-house, fuel societies, churches, and especially of the outdoor municipal relief in procuring the requisite as-

sistance, and supplemented it as need indicated from its own resources. It brought the charitable operations of Germantown into unexpected unison; repressed imposture and the artificial appetite for aid of such poor as sought it only because they wanted to share in the good things provided for those who asked, and not because they would otherwise be destitute of them; reformed outdoor municipal relief; discovered real cases of hardship; and gained the confidence of the benevolent of all denominations in that community. This association profoundly influenced the measures adopted by the larger society formed in Philadelphia a few years later.

Early Investigations.— In the same year a Bureau of Charities was formed in New York City, of which Mr. Henry E. Pellew was chief promoter and secretary, that proposed to register persons receiving outdoor relief, either from the city, benevolent societies, or individuals; but the scheme was frustrated the next year by the refusal of the largest relief-giving society in the city to co-operate. This plan met with better success in Boston. In the autumn of 1875 the Co-operative Society of Visitors among the Poor was formed in Boston, whose theatre of operation was in the North End. The plan was a modification of the Elberfeld system as proposed by Octavia Hill for London. No visitor was to have more than four "cases" on hand, and lists were obtained from a physician who was the visitor for the Provident Association in that congested and poor district. The society held weekly conferences of visitors and representatives of other charities, and it opened a work-room in the Chardon Street Charity Building.

Buffalo.— Buffalo has the honor of being the first city in the United States to produce a complete Charity Organization Society of the London type. The Rev. S. H. Gurteen, an English clergyman, who had been active in the London Society, was settled as an assistant minister in St. Paul's Church there; and he systematized the work of his parish guild so that every application for aid was promptly investigated. He proposed in 1877 the creation of a clearing-office to which the charitable agencies of the city should send daily reports; and he lectured on "Phases of Charity," attracting much attention. Simultaneously citizens, having met in conference, were engaged in an effort to reform the methods of municipal outdoor relief, which had become extravagant, was careless and corrupt. Failing to obtain legislation in Albany to create a commission for its

control, they secured an ordinance from the city, under which, in October, 1877, all applications for relief were for the first time investigated by the police. On Dec. 11, 1877, as a result of these agitations, the Charity Organization Society was set afoot at a public meeting; and it adhered to the principle of co-ordinating existing relief agencies and giving no relief from its own funds except in rare emergencies.

New Haven.— New Haven was next in line, May 23, 1878, with the co-operation of the older local relief societies, and took charge of cases until investigation elicited some mode of making more permanent disposition of them.

Boston.— In the spring of 1876 a Registration Committee was formed by private citizens of Boston, and work was begun in the autumn, carried on until the spring of 1878, and then abandoned in view of the larger enterprise then under discussion. It had demonstrated the value of reports from the offices of the Overseers of the Poor, of benevolent societies, and of the Friendly Visitors above referred to, when collated; but it had failed to obtain the entire co-operation of relief organizations. Much discussion and many conferences ensued during that year, looking to the formation of a society upon the principles of Charity Organization, which would bring into association all the relief agencies, ecclesiastical and secular, of the city. The large relief societies knew the worth of registration, but doubted the value of "friendly visiting." They were willing to support the new movement, provided "the visitors had no power of relief." This condition was fortunately acceded to; and on Feb. 26, 1879, a provisional commission was formed by delegates from many charities, which carried on the work until December 8, when the present constitution of the Associated Charities of Boston was adopted, and went into effect.

Philadelphia.— Philadelphia brought forward its type in 1878. In the previous autumn the officers of several soup societies, dissatisfied with the results of their previous work, called a public meeting of citizens to confer upon larger and better methods for the future. A large committee was appointed to draw up a plan; and on June 13, 1878, a constitution was adopted and a provisional organization set on foot. This instrument was dominated by the idea of reproducing in each of the thirty wards of the city a complete association, like that existing in Germantown. The Central Board was to be com-

posed of two delegates from each ward, which should meet monthly; and meanwhile its powers were to be exercised by an Executive Committee. The provisional commission proceeded to organize Ward Associations with great rapidity, and in due time delegates were chosen to the Central Board and the Society was organized under its constitution. The immediate results of so cumbrous and democratic a scheme was that twenty-three societies were formed in as many wards or groups of contiguous wards, pledged to take care of all the distress and penury each in its territorial limits. Each raised its own funds, and disbursed them without control; and, as there were but few persons in them who understood Charity Organization principles, the work often fell into wrong hands, and the Ward Associations were so many new almsgiving societies. By their attitude they were virtually saying to all the older charitable societies that there was no need of them, and they, as a rule, refused co-operation, and still withhold it. Another result was that the Central Board had no authority to control the methods of relief, and was itself subordinate to its ward constituencies. One hundred and eighty persons were needed to fill the offices of directors, while there were large corps of visitors having a semi-independent organization. The movement was highly popular at the start, and came in the first year into an income of nearly $40,000. It offered itself to the community as a complete, independent, and self-contained system for dealing with every phase of charity; but its very sufficiency obscured the vital fact that Charity Organization aims at no more independence than is necessary to maintain existence, and should be subservient to all existing charity agencies with a view to their co-ordination. Great reliance for the uniform working of the system was placed upon monthly conferences of all the workers, directors, local superintendents, and visitors, and for a time these conferences were well attended and were highly educational. In due time the plan was revised, the choice of the Central Board was transferred from the Ward Associations to the annual meeting of the general society, its initiative and oversight was strengthened, and the wards were consolidated into eighteen districts; but the original features had made a deep impression which has not been obliterated. The business of registration and co-operation sank into control of the district organizations; the Central office drifted into the specialty of caring for non-residents and wayfarers' lodges; and the society remains as

it started out to be, a relief agency with Charity Organization traditions.

NEWPORT.— The benevolent community of Newport was aroused in 1878 to the need of better co-operation among its charities by a realization that a large proportion of the population of that prosperous and wealthy town was, through the enormous increase of public and private almsgiving, being rapidly pauperized. A study of the situation revealed the astonishing fact that "one in ten of the population was either wholly or in part supported by charity, and that nearly one-half of that charity was thrown away." As the best remedy for meeting the growing evil, the Charity Organization Society was formed Feb. 12, 1879. None of our societies have continuously done more intelligent and successful work, and but few have accomplished equal results in uplifting the families under their care. The marked feature in its history is its success in cultivating habits of thrift and of saving among its beneficiaries.

CINCINNATI.— Cincinnati was promptly in the field Nov. 18, 1879. The Associated Charities was initiated through influences aroused chiefly by the Women's Christian Association and other societies, the inaugural meeting being held the same hour with the first annual meeting of the Philadelphia society, and reciprocal congratulations being exchanged between them. It started avowedly on the lines laid down in the Boston society, but practically it fell into the Philadelphia methods, and created or adopted twelve district organizations dispensing relief and which the Central Board was not able to control. Fortunately, the tact and force of the General Secretary repressed much of the mischief, secured a general registration, and gave cohesion to the system until 1886, when he resigned and the society lapsed into a relief agency, became unpopular, and was about to be abandoned; when in 1889 it was reorganized, the district treasuries were absorbed into one, the central authority made dominant, and the distribution of relief was stopped, to the great increase of efficiency and public confidence.

BROOKLYN.— Brooklyn was another centre where the movement arose spontaneously. In 1877 a commission of citizens undertook the investigation of outdoor relief, which in that year comprised 46,350 beneficiaries and involved an expenditure of $141,207. This resulted in restricting municipal outdoor relief to coal in 1878, and in its total abolition the next year. In 1879 Mr. Seth Low, who had

been providentially and unpremeditatedly present at the inauguration of the Buffalo society and deeply impressed thereby, enlisted Mr. Alfred T. White; and they, with others who had been instrumental in abolishing the outdoor relief of the city, together with the volunteer visitors of the outdoor poor, organized the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, which does not give relief, but maintains wood-yards, laundries, work-rooms, and a woman's lodging-house.

Indianapolis. — Indianapolis enjoyed the labors of Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch as president of the Benevolent Society, in which office he had made careful studies of the poor-relief problem. In 1876 Mr. King, the Township Trustee or Overseer of the Poor, began to systematize and improve the administration of poor-relief, and together these gentlemen led on to the formation, Dec. 5, 1879, of the Charity Organization Society.

New York.— New York, as the largest centre of population in the country, demands notice here. The difficulties encountered in securing influential co-operation in 1874 for a time paralyzed further effort, although the necessity for some organization was long discussed by persons interested in charitable enterprises. In 1881 the matter was taken up by the State Board of Charities, and through its initiative the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York was founded in January, 1882, and incorporated on the 10th of May following. It followed the Boston plan in respect to the important features of giving no relief and of creating district associations maintained from a common treasury and under central control.

National Conference.— All other Charity Organization Societies in the United States trace their origin to these now enumerated, which have been selected not only as among the earliest in the field, but as illustrating the diversity of origin of the movement, the causes which immediately led to the associations for organizing charity, and the two types of societies, those which combine relief from their own funds with their methods and those which do not. The movement found an expression of its unity in the National Conference of Charities and Correction, which is itself an outgrowth of the American Social Science Association. It is first mentioned in the proceedings of the Chicago Conference of 1879, where Mr. Seth Low presented a description of the work in Brooklyn, and a committee was formed to report upon Charity Organization. Two

years later, at Boston, nineteen societies reported to the National Conference; and the committee grew to a Section, which published a separate report of its own proceedings.

Suppression of Outdoor Relief.— Simultaneously with the beginning of Charity Organization, and promoted by the same men, there was a repression in important cities of official outdoor relief. Returns from four cities for that time give the following results. —

City.	Year.	Out-relief.	Year.	Out-relief.
Brooklyn	1877	$141,207	1880	None.
Buffalo	1877	99,196	1880	$37,868
Indianapolis, Centre Township	1876	90,000	1880	8,000
Philadelphia	1879	66,000	1880	None.
Amount saved to tax-payers				350,535
Total		$396,403		$396,403

While this elimination of outdoor relief was not pressed by formal action of our societies, Charity Organizationists claimed the credit of it as the result of their agitation and personal effort, and it was exactly in the line of the principles they advocated. Diligent inquiry showed that no suffering ensued in consequence of the withdrawal, while the admissions to almshouses and infirmaries in the cities named contemporaneously decreased. This event attracted wide attention in watchful official circles, evinced the value of the investigations which preceded it, and disclosed the worse than useless prodigality of outdoor relief. Its influence spread far and wide beyond the limits where it could be statistically followed, and was the beginning of a wiser administration of the charitable funds raised by taxation in many communities.

Ten Years of Growth.— In 1882 there were twenty-two Charity Organization Societies known to exist in the United States, and ten others which had adopted some of the leading features of this movement, and were enrolled as correspondents with the former societies. They embraced cities and towns having a population of 6,331,700, or twelve per cent. of the total of the United States; and among them were the chief centres of influence in the country. Of these societies ten were in or had just completed the first year of their operations; and among them were some destined to be the most important in the Union, administering in incorporated populations of

2,363,138. From this point it is practicable to make tables and comparisons which exhibit the growth, mode of operations, and results of the Charity Organization movement for a decade in the United States. (See Appendix B.)

At the close of the year 1892 there were ninety-two Charity Organization and affiliated societies,— an increase of two hundred and seventy-eight per cent. in ten years; and they were located in cities and towns comprising a population estimated at 11,080,766 (by census of 1890, 10,419,150). Of these, six were founded in 1883, nine in 1884, five in 1885, four in 1886, two in 1887, six in 1888, six in 1889, six in 1890, four in 1891, and five in 1892. Of these, thirty-two report that their organizations sprang up independently of other charitable societies; fifteen, that they were promoted by existing charities; six, that they were reorganizations; one, that it was a consolidation of two movements; and one, that it was the enlargement of a committee to investigate outdoor poor relief. In nearly every instance the motive leading to these organizations is declared to have been discontent with the prodigality and inefficiency of public relief, and the chaotic state of private charity. Twenty-two of our associations report that voluntary charity was lavish, uninformed, and aimless, with no concert of action; two, that it was variable, and therefore unreliable; one, that it was impeded by discouragement; and one, that it did not exist in the community.

Two Types.— Classified by their relation to almsgiving, twenty-five of our associations report that they do not give material relief from their own funds; twenty, that they do relieve; nine, that they do so only in emergent cases, of which two add that they do so in order to avoid official outdoor relief. Thus two classes are formed, one of which comprises almsgiving agencies in which thirty societies enroll themselves, and the other relies upon other societies and upon individuals for the physical resources it recommends, and thus secures relief by co-operation; and in this class twenty-five societies enroll themselves. Of the twenty relief-giving societies, six are affiliated or are older organizations readjusted. Omitting these, we find that fifty-one per cent. of those reporting to us do not directly relieve, while forty-nine per cent. do. In 1881 there were but twelve relieving and seven non-relieving societies reporting,— a percentage of sixty-three to the former and thirty-seven to the latter. These are instructive figures, showing the tendency of the movement, when its

principles are faithfully followed, toward the type of a pure organization agency as the complement of the other charitable enterprises of society. (See Appendix C.)

PROPAGANDA.— The methods taken to disseminate Charity Organization principles are various. Most of the societies publish annual reports, though a few of the smaller ones publish nothing. In a few instances, monthly reports are published. There are thirteen societies which rely for the promulgation of their views solely upon personal advocacy and the results of their work; twenty make use of local papers, one of them maintaining a weekly column in a local newspaper; sixteen issue occasional papers, tracts, and pamphlets; four publish periodicals; and several make use of public conferences, lectures, and meetings. There are also in several cities Directories of Charities, describing the benevolent institutions and associations therein, which are prepared by Charity Organization Societies.

LAPSED SOCIETIES.— It is known to this committee that thirteen Charity Organization Societies have been formed and dissolved. They were located as follows, the dates of their organization being also given as far as ascertained:—

——. Altoona, Pa.
1882. Chicago. Merged in a relief society.
1886. Columbus, Ohio.
1886. Dedham, Mass.
1883. District of Columbia. Suspended.
1881. Lowell, Mass.
1883. Moline, Ill.
1884. Paterson, N.J.
1881. Princeton, N.J.
1885. Quincy, Ill.
1884. Sandusky, Ohio.
1888. St. Joseph, Mo.
1890. Toledo, Ohio.

There are twenty-five societies enrolled which have made no report, of which six are on the affiliated or readjusted list. Some of these preserve an organization as a nucleus for rebuilding, and some are the chief relieving agencies of the communities in which they are located. A few are practically in suspension. Various causes may be assigned for the creation of this delinquent and lapsed list. For the most part it embraces comparatively small communities, where the field for combining benevolent enterprises is small, and in some cases the management of poor-relief is fairly good and easily influenced. There are instances where the Charity Organization Society was the first and only general non-sectarian association in the town, and it drifted into the work of relief. More frequently the nascent society yielded to the opposition of the friends of the old system,

or was planted in a community not prepared to comprehend and maintain it, or it lacked the superintendency essential to the promotion of a reform so radical and complex as that involved in the readjustment of the benevolence of a whole community. Probably the lack of trained and capable superintendents, and of suitable Friendly Visitors prepared to bear the restraints of Charity Organization, is the chief cause of miscarriage; for where a society has been able to command these, and to put them in control of its work, it has taken root and won support to its standards.

On Reports from Societies.— The last ten years of the history of Charity Organization this report will exhibit in tabulated statistics appended thereto, merely calling attention here to their salient points and results. For its preparation a circular letter was prepared (see Appendix D), and sent to every society know to your committee. It is to be regretted that many of the returns were so imperfect as to render them useless for purposes of comparison or for illustrating the growth of the movement. In some instances, the society had kept no records which would supply the information sought; in others, the correspondent misconceived the object of the question, and replied in general terms instead of statistics; and in still others there was little appreciation of the importance of this occasion or the value of full and accurate reports. On the other hand, many of the returns bear evidence of excellent office records, systematic work, and painstaking to fill the blanks in the circular fully and accurately. A study of the appendices to this report will disclose the imperfections referred to. From the material furnished the following exhibit is made.

Changes of Method. *Relief Adopted.*— In a movement of so recent origin there has been but small room to judge of the effects of various methods and to devise new plans of work. Most of the Charity Organization Societies still adhere to the methods with which they started out. Still there are three distinct phases of development to be detected in the growth of their work: (1) the adoption of material relief; (2) the abolition or reduction of such relief; and (3) the expansion of Friendly Visiting and provident enterprises. Four societies report a change from organizing and co-operative work by adding thereto the distribution of some form of alms. Worcester at first created a separate treasury known as the Fund of Benevolent Individuals, on which its officers drew for

cases of necessity; and thus it began with keeping its organization and visiting work apart from the distribution of alms. But the expedient was cumbersome, and this fund was absorbed into the general treasury, and thence distributed as the need of applicants required. At the same time this relief work is a matter of regret, and the reason assigned for its continuance is the small number and inadequacy of charity societies in that city. In Rochester, under the form of "Immediate Relief," our society has entered on a phase of general almsgiving, probably as a temporary makeshift until some more effectual disposition can be made of cases in its care. But the report is made that this change has greatly conciliated public opinion, and increased the contributions to the treasury of the society. The Lynn society became trustee of a bequest for the benefit of local poor, and turned the income into a loan and emergency fund; while Minneapolis established an emergency fund, but, restricting its use to its paid agents, kept its Friendly Visiting corps free from being entangled with its distribution. From these statements the inference is that alms relief has been for the most part taken up in a very restricted way, and but few Charity Organization Societies which did not begin with it have since adopted it.

Relief Withheld.— On the other hand, several of our societies have distinctly receded from the work of material relief, to seek it by co-operation with other benevolent agencies. Notable is the history of Cincinnati, the experience of which in coquetting with relief distribution from its own treasury is already recited above, and which in consequence came near the verge of extinction. Now, freed from that alliance, it is one of the most effective societies upon the list. A like experiment went on in Detroit. Its funds were withdrawn from distribution among the poor, its too independent district associations were abolished, and a board of fifteen trustees was put in complete charge of the administration. From the important city of Philadelphia, where the society began with its sovereignty lodged in ward associations, that system still nominally remains; but the report comes that the Central Board has gained in influence and authority over the ward administrations, and is now enforcing the charity organization theory more vigorously than was possible at first. In Pueblo and San Francisco direct relief work has receded, and been replaced with better systems of investigation and co-operation with other charitable agencies. Syracuse has restricted its material relief to

the merest tiding over, through co-operating agencies, of emergent cases until some judgment can be reached on the better disposition of an applicant for aid, and this society enrolls itself as a non-relieving association. In Orange, N.J., and Seattle, Wash., the employment of a paid and expert superintendent has been found to put an end to feebleness and inefficiency.

Development.— It is interesting to note the lines of development of agencies which the Charity Organization Societies keep in their own control. The influence they have had in promoting beneficent schemes to be carried on by others will be touched upon in later paragraphs. The developments here referred to are those which have been engrafted on our societies after their foundation and as a result of experience. But the inference must not be drawn that they are peculiar to the societies enumerated. Many others began their career with Friendly Visitors, employment agencies, registration, investigation, and provident schemes, and where these features are here enumerated they simply show the tendency of all societies to come into line in the nature of their work. Baltimore has added an employment bureau and friendly visiting to its original plan; so also has Brooklyn, while also developing labor tests of real need; Bangor has improved its system of registration and investigation; New Haven indexes in book records its card registration, has adopted friendly visiting, and established a savings fund; New York has learned to make its exchanges of information more prompt and complete, has created a provident savings fund, and encouraged provident schemes and labor tests; Waterbury has added provident schemes; and Wilmington, Del., has sought larger conformity to the work of the greater sister societies.

Finance.— In extenuation of the enormous percentages of contributing support, which otherwise would seem extravagant, it must be remembered that this review embraces only fourteen organizations in 1882, several of which were in their first year, and compares them with fifty-four societies reporting ten years later. This in itself represents an increase of nearly three hundred per cent. in the number of organizations participating in this report; and the other growths are closely correspondent. Thus in the last ten years the number of individual contributors quadrupled, the number of contributing churches and societies increased more than three hundred and seven per cent., while nine societies received aid from State

and municipal treasuries to the extent of $17,878 in 1892, and another an office free of rent. The income of forty-eight societies increased threefold in 1892 over that of seventeen in 1882, and reached an aggregate of $263,421. Fourteen societies report the beginning of invested funds, and together they held property and securities valued at $409,038. (See Appendix E.)

Real Estate.— The real estate which has passed into possession of Charity Organization Societies demands attention not only for its magnitude, but as indicative of the permanency of this sort of work among the established features of modern social life. These endowments began in Buffalo, 1880, when, through the generosity of a single individual, the Fitch Crèche was established at a cost of about $40,000, an institution which has done much to promote industry and thrift among the poor, and is the best equipped agency of the kind in America. To this gift Mr. Benjamin Fitch added much other property, conveying it by deed of trust to the society for the purpose of encouraging provident schemes. The Fitch Institute, completed in 1883, not only affords offices for the accommodation of the society, but within it are comprised an Accident Hospital and a Training School for nursery maids and domestic servants. These properties form the greater part of the $300,000 invested on behalf of the Buffalo society. Very noble is the admirable and imposing United Charities Building of New York, erected by Mr. John S. Kennedy, and dedicated March 6, 1893. It was deeded to four of the principal charity societies of the city, who manage it through a board of trustees chosen by them. Each has an equal share in the use and income of the structure, and one of these is the Charity Organization Society. As it cost over $600,000, the equity of this society is valued at $150,000. The Charities Building in Chardon Street, Boston, was already in existence when the Associated Charities of that city were organized; and here that society has always had its headquarters free of rent. It was built in part by private subscriptions. The Bridgeport society owns a building valued at $11,000, that of Cleveland one valued at $23,000, and New Haven has a fund of $30,000 dedicated to a like purpose. These edifices are centres of conference, co-operation, and exchanges of information, and virtually add an estimated value of about $220,000 to the invested resources of Charity Organization in the United States, making a total of $630,000.

INTERNAL ORGANIZATION.— With pardonable pride attention is called to the fact that fifty-two societies report placing in the field of administration and personal service of the needy in 1892 an army of 5,476 men and women. This number is below the actual fact, since seventeen of the societies make no return of their administrative officers, and eight none of their Friendly Visitors, while Philadelphia fails to enumerate the officers and visitors of its eighteen large district societies with which several hundred visitors are connected. The total number is doubtless over 6,000. This report would gladly exhibit the relative part taken by men and by women in this work; but its conclusions are marred by the fact that six societies have not distinguished the sexes in their returns, and these embrace some important cities. Where no distinction has been made, administrative offices have been credited to men, who predominate therein, and for a like reason visitors have been reckoned as women in our tables; and the results as stated are the best now attainable. In administrative work 763 men, an increase of 157 per cent. in ten years, and 511 women, an increase of 220 per cent., were engaged in 1892. Of paid officials the same year there were 77 men (increase 220 per cent.) and 135 women (increase 250 per cent.) in the service; while of Friendly Visitors 456 men (increase 1,400 per cent.) and 3,534 women (increase 165 per cent.) toiled in the homes or over the ill-fortunes of applicants for aid. As 74,704 cases came under the notice of the societies, this would give an average of 17.6 cases to each visitor,— a number altogether too large for effective work. Boston has developed friendly visiting to the highest efficiency, having 767 visitors in the field. There this feature of the work is regarded as "the soul of the movement," and there was in 1892 one visitor to each 1.98 cases treated. Indeed, here the Charity Organization movement grew out of a Friendly Visitors' Association. Brooklyn comes next on the list, having 532 visitors, and yet, in common with New York, feels its work hampered and restricted by the lack of an efficient force of visitors. Cincinnati regards this as the most successful feature of its work; and from many quarters comes the expression of a desire to enlarge this department. It is the means by which the higher resources of society, its hope, discipline, thrift, and kindness of heart, are diffused among the depressed and those who have fallen by the way; it is the means of contact with poverty of mind and purse; it is the vital

agency in evoking the capacities of the poor for self-maintenance. If Charity Organization seeks to withdraw that material relief which weakens independence, it does so in order to replace it with the choicer and holier aid of wisdom, self-control, and sympathy. (See Appendix F.) Fifteen societies control one hundred subordinate district conferences or associations, and twenty-nine avail themselves of conferences among officers and visitors to consider methods and the disposition to be made of individual and family cases. These conferences range from weekly through monthly and quarterly sessions. A notable example of kindred work lasted through the first eight years of the Philadelphia society. Here once a month an Assembly of the whole society was held and numerously attended, at which papers were read, and practical discussions maintained on the problems of charity; and the effect of them was incalculable in educating the workers and even the community in a sense of responsibility for their poor brothers and sisters. It was a popular school for teaching charity, and did much to plant the principles of Charity Organization in the confidence of the public and to unify the work of the large and too independent Ward Associations.

Lines of Work Developed. (See Appendix G.) *Repression of Public Outdoor Relief.* — Outdoor relief from tax-rates was long obnoxious to the students of the English poor-law system; and Parliament vainly tried to abolish it by confining aid to the workhouse, which was thus intended to be a test of destitution. But the laws broke down, and the vicious distribution by parish officers still went on. Together with much that is beyond criticism in common law, the evils of this system were imported from the mother country, and were widely applied in the United States. One of the first movements on Charity Organization lines was, consequently, a widely diffused effort to reform or abolish municipal outdoor relief. In some instances, as in Brooklyn and to some extent in Buffalo, it antedated the Association of Charities for co-operative work and directly led thereto, the same men being active leaders in each agitation. In other instances, as in Philadelphia, city outdoor relief was abandoned because the Charity Organization Societies stood ready to make it needless. It was a distribution of alms very much suspected as contribution to political corruption; and where its administration escaped this suspicion there was little responsibility for the individual application of the appropriation, and less investigation into the needs and

habits of the recipients. The mere existence of an appropriation from the public treasury was demoralizing to the poor, who thought they had a right to a share in it and felt no gratitude for so impersonal and official a dole. It would be gratifying, if the statistics were to be had, to show what Charity Organization has done directly in lightening the tax-payers' burden; but this is a matter of minor significance compared with the more humane remedial aims of the movement. Only eight societies have supplied definite figures, and the results are given in this table: —

Brooklyn,— abolished in 1878; amount appropriated in 1877,		$141,207.00
Buffalo,— average reduction, 50 per cent.; amount saved per annum,		50.000.00
Burlington, Ia.,— reduction in one year,		4.000.00
Hartford, Conn.,— reduction, 65 per cent.; amount saved per annum,		26,000.00
Indianapolis,— reduction, 91 per cent.; amount appropriated in 1880 less than in 1876 (this city now reports applications for aid reduced one-half),		82,000.00
New Haven, Conn.,— reduction in one year (also one relief society's expenditure fell from $2,000 to $500),		10,000.00
Omaha, Neb.,— reduction in one year,		15,000.00
Philadelphia,— abolished in 1880; average appropriations to 1879,	$66,000	
Less outdoor medical relief continued, averaging per year about	6,000	60,000.00
Syracuse,— reduction, 43 per cent.; amount saved per annum,		10,850.00
Taunton, Mass.,— abolished,		10,423.00
Total present annual reduction,		$409,480.00

Besides this sum, in Cincinnati and Minneapolis the municipal outdoor relief has diminished one-half, notwithstanding the increase of population. Albany and Portland, Ore., note its decrease. In Detroit its distribution has been turned over to a special commission appointed by the mayor and presumably removed from partisan political control. In Newark it has been restricted to bread and coal tickets during the three winter months, but is continued to widows and the aged the year round. In Lawrence and Malden, Mass., Newburg, N.Y., Plainfield, N.J., San Francisco, Springfield, Ohio, and Waterbury, Conn., it has been administered with increasing discrimination, while from Boston it is reported that the Overseers of the Poor make more thorough investigation, more rigidly exclude persons able to support themselves and those addicted to drink or vice.

Street Begging.— From the important cities of Albany, Boston, Charleston, S.C., Cleveland, Davenport, Detroit, Newark, N.J., New Haven, Omaha, Philadelphia, Portland, Ore., Rochester, N.Y., San Francisco, Syracuse, and Waterbury, Conn., information comes that street begging has been perceptibly diminished. In five of these tities it is pronounced suppressed, which means at least the mendicants no longer flaunt their rags and deformities before the eyes of citizens or wail their dolorous cant in the public ear. Albany and Davenport send the touching words that child-begging has ceased. New York deals energetically with this imposture, employing two special officers to deal with this class of cases. An analyzed record is kept of the cases; and in 1892 63.4 per cent. were found to be inmates of cheap lodging-houses and police stations, 20.7 to have homes, and 2.9 could not be traced to any abode. Of these 79 per cent. were able-bodied, and 21 per cent. were maimed, sick, or aged. To give to these maimed and aged ones on the streets was cruelty, as it kept them from the more humane and adequate provision of the almshouse. Instructed in all cases to offer the services of the society for the relief of apparent necessity, the officers caused the arrest and imprisonment of 48 per cent., warned 44 per cent. to desist from begging, and the rest were either put beyond the society's reach by the magistrate or referred to the care of some church or district committee. These are the only records within reach that permit a study and classification of the street-beggar genus, and probably the ratios here given will hold good for the whole class throughout the country. This work in New York, Boston, and Buffalo is impeded by the custom there of granting licenses to maimed and afflicted persons to play musical instruments and to peddle small wares on the street, under which guise much soliciting of alms from passers-by takes place.

Vagrants.— The homeless and the wanderers furnish a class known in poor-law legislation as vagrants. Whether these be sturdy vagabonds or dislodged unfortunates, Charity Organization aims to end their vagrancy by placing them again in some sort of social relations, either by force of law or by some sifting process which separates the curable from the chronic cases. In the repression of vagrancy three resources have been employed,— the police for the incorrigible and dissolute, labor tests as a means of discriminating those who have abandoned themselves to a predatory career from

those who are willing to use the means afforded for reaching self-support, and lodgings where wayfarers may abide temporarily while in pursuit of employment. Some of the Wayfarers' Lodges employ labor tests, but the favorite form of such tests is the wood-yard. The oldest and most systematic of these combined lodges and tests is in Boston, where the city took up the work in 1879. It at once relieved the police station houses of the "casuals," and spared the unfortunates who were desirous of self-maintenance the humiliation and contamination of police stations. Here, too, the purification of the person and the clothing of the beneficiaries were scrupulously attended to, accompanied by the strong re-enforcement of that cleanliness which restores one's self-respect. This system has also been carried to a wide extent in Philadelphia; and here the Charity Organization Society, at its own expense, performs for the city the work of relieving the station houses and streets from the casuals. Upon this department the society spent 54 per cent. in 1892 of the income of its Central Treasury (or $14,911.33), and was reimbursed by sales from the wood-yard to the extent of 66 per cent. ($9,984.59), and by an appropriation from the State of 23.4 per cent. ($3,500 a year). This system is regarded there as the most successful and beneficent department of the general work of the society. It comprises two separate agencies, one for dealing with non-residents, of whom half are received from the City Department of Public Safety. Every effort is made to return these casuals to their kindred or the towns where they had domiciles, and facilities for doing this are freely granted by the transportation companies. The labor tests are chiefly connected with the Wayfarers' Lodges, where 15,476 wanderers found shelter and assistance in 1892. The work of the society in the rural district of Bryn Mawr is chiefly of this kind. It may be said that the encouragement of labor tests is a prevalent purpose of Charity Organization Societies everywhere, whether controlled by them or set up by municipal authority or by other societies. The system, being necessarily compulsory to a large extent, requires the co-operation of the police authorities, which is usually easily obtained, since it releases them from the care of thousands who are charged with no misdemeanor, and who ought not to be taken before a magistrate. It is reported to us that twenty-seven of our societies in dealing with this vagabondage lodged 70.9 per cent. and subjected 26 per cent. to labor tests. This distinction between

lodging and labor tests does not, however, seem trustworthy, since, as a rule, both are practised in combination.

In addition, 117 cases of fraudulent schemes, especially those pretending to be organizations for charitable purposes, were detected and exposed, and in some cases broken up, in 1892, by far the greater part of this suppression having occurred in New York City.

Co-operation.— The very name of Charity Organization indicates a paramount purpose to bring about the co-operation of those engaged in ministering to the poor and unfortunate. In so far as this result remains unattained, the practice of Charity Organization falls below its theory and standards. The scheme of registration was devised to compass this end, investigation is meant to facilitate it, the restriction upon Friendly Visitors in the matter of almsgiving is based upon it. Yet co-operation is one of the most difficult of attainments. Various causes obstruct the work of our societies in this direction. In some cities there exists a distinct hostility in the older charitable societies to Charity Organization. They resent the implication that their work may need amending or they are unwilling to submit to any outside judgment. But more common by far is the simple inertia of churches and societies. They do not oppose: they often approve our principles and aims; but they do not take the trouble to keep records, report cases, or consult the registration bureaus. Co-operation is a thing of slow growth, but each advance made and held is a distinct and decisive triumph of organization ideals. Out of forty societies embraced in this branch of our inquiry, thirty-one claim a co-operation, more or less complete, with municipal agencies of relief. The ratio thereof is the high one of 97 per cent., and it is gratifying to learn that in some important centres it is cordial and unrestrained. The returns of thirty societies show that together they have established a practical co-operation with one-third of the charitable agencies and institutions in their cities. Our inquiries have elicited the unexpected and gratifying fact that in thirty-four cities co-operation has been attained with 44 per cent. of the churches located in them. So variously has the inquiry concerning co-operation with individuals been understood and answered that no useful generalization can be made about it. It was intended to elicit the number of persons immediately engaged in some work of compassion for a family or an individual, who had used the records or investiga-

tions or agencies of Charity Organization in effecting their purpose. The matter is obscure, and must be passed here without further remark than that the reports from the larger towns and cities are quite uniformly encouraging.

Registration.— It is a singular mark of the general and deep impression upon the public mind concerning the imposture and worthlessness of applications for relief that registration and investigation should be regarded as a sort of detective and repressive system. This feature of Charity Organization is to the popular and superficial mind the most obnoxious one of our work. Yet the dread that light thrown upon pauperism would reveal the great extent of its mendacity and vicious origin is in truth a most forcible argument against indiscriminate, dissociated, and disorderly almsgiving. It is true that registration and investigation form a sieve that separates, with a practical justice, cases entitled by misfortune to material relief from those who would pervert such aid to the prolongation of self-ruinous habits; but even then it does not remove from humane care those who are technically called "undeserving." It only creates a classification which dictates different modes of treatment. It is essential that the physician should know what ails his patient before he prescribes, and not give a splint to the consumptive and cod-liver oil to the man with broken bones. The good Samaritan knew better than to set the robber on his ass, or to give the wounded wayfarer only his pence, or expend his wine and oil on the able-bodied landlord.

But the detective and repressive effects of registration and investigation are but incidental to them under present social conditions. Their true purpose is far greater and grander, and were all imposture and dishonest design to cease in the field of pauperism there would still be need of these two processes. The information accumulated by them not only lays bare the false address, the professional beggar, and the slum-degraded debauchee, but, on the other hand, it maintains the cause of the upright poor, and supplies their credentials to sympathy and help. It would not abolish overlapping, but adjust it so that the alms from one source may complement the alms from another, and so concert them that they may be timely, appropriate, and adequate. But, above all, it is the key to co-operation. The records of the registration bureau enable the Charity Organizationist to say to all who toil for the relief of penury: "We have that information which is invaluable to you, if you would do your work wisely

and efficiently. We cannot compel co-operation, but we can serve you, and by service become your auxiliary and friend."

There are two sides to registration. Societies and individuals may make use of our archives for guidance in administering their own relief, and they may also enlarge our records by reporting the families and persons whom they aid. The first form of co-operation is by far the more common: it is much rarer for churches, societies, and private almsgivers to report to us their own operations. Often this default is not from lack of approval of our aims and work, nor from want of cordial sympathy and intercourse, but simply owing to the need of adopting unwonted methods and the labor required in the systematic exchange of information. Were our bureaus of registration replenished and used as the Charity Organization theory requires, the active benevolences of society would fall into alignment, and move as a disciplined army, animated with a common purpose, each company supporting the others, to the conquest of the problems of penury, misery, and degradation. It seems incredible that the nine-tenths of society which is whole and sound cannot in due time concert measures, and unitedly work them out, which would renovate the other tenth.

Administrators of public official relief recognize that they are the servants of society, and responsible to it for the way in which they perform their work; and hence they are the most willing to open their records to our societies. In New England, however, outside of Boston and Newport, the Overseers of the Poor seem reticent and obstructive. In eleven * large cities it is claimed that the bureaus of registration are working in unrestricted harmony and completeness with poor-law officials. Minneapolis and New Haven estimate that their records cover nine-tenths of the municipal relief cases: in Albany, Buffalo, and Rochester the ratio ranges from one to three-quarters; and in three other cities this form of co-operation is returned as partial or considerable. Registration for other voluntary societies is returned for only twelve cities, and ranges from 25 per cent. of such societies in Lynn, Mass., to 90 per cent. in New York and New Haven. Doubtless, as in New York, many of these societies register only the cases on which they desire to consult the central records. In Boston 35 per cent. of the cases taken

* They are Boston, Burlington, Ia., Cincinnati, Detroit, Milwaukee, Newark, N.J., Newport, R.I., New York, Salem, Mass., Seattle, Wash., and Syracuse.

up by the Associated Charities are referred thither by other charitable societies. The average extent of this exchange would appear to be with 59 per cent. of the recognized voluntary charities of twelve cities. Fourteen societies have registered for churches, reporting from 10 to 80 per cent. of the whole number in their communities to be pledged to the principle, but registering (as in the case of societies) with varying degrees of fidelity, New York taking the lead. Such service for asylums and similar private institutions is naturally restricted, as their beneficiaries are less fluctuating in numbers, and admission to them is of a more formal character. For eight societies the registration service has extended to from five to seventy-five per cent. of the whole number of such institutions, New Haven leading. In some societies registration has been found cumbersome, and is not systematically undertaken. In others, notably in Boston and New York, it is carried to constantly increasing efficiency, both as to fulness and accuracy of statistics and as to promptness in making the service available to others. As might be expected, the New York accumulated records are very large, and embrace at least 170,000 families or parts of families. Where this work has been well maintained, our societies find it invaluable, as well for their own visitors as for promoting co-operation, and commending their work to other societies and to philanthropic minds.

In 1886 a plan was proposed in Buffalo of a central registration bureau for all the Charity Organization Societies, which should confine itself to recording, travelling, and professional mendicants. It was a scheme for the suppression of "rounders," or professional, genteel, travelling mendicants, but proved to be premature; for there were not enough registering societies to make it effective.

Social State.— Another important plan was devised at the same time for the classification of applicants for relief according to their family relations, ages, and nationality. It is mentioned in this connection because it involves the methods and details of registration. It went into fairly general operation in 1889, when the blank forms were agreed upon and published by action of this National Conference. (See Appendix H.) It is based on the joint experience of the American societies, and elicited the approval of the first International Conference of Charities held in Paris,— a Conference, by the way, which declared the Charity Organization Societies of Great Britain and the United States to be the most wisely contrived and efficient

agencies for dealing with the social problems of penury and misfortune known to it. It is highly gratifying to state that the gathering of materials for this report elicited the fact that thirty-one of our most important Organization Societies have, with commendable completeness, adhered to the plan, and kept valuable records. A brief summary of the results reached may be given as follows. Of over 15,000 cases reported,—

34.59 per cent. were married couples.
19.03 " " " widows.
6.55 " " " deserted wives.
6.30 " " " single women.
3.74 " " " widowers or deserted husbands.
25.84 " " " single men.
1.09 " " " orphaned or abandoned children.

Of over 35,000 cases reported,—

46.52 per cent. were under 20 years of age (four-fifths of these were mere children).
9.65 per cent. were between 20 and 40 years.
32.42 " " " " 40 and 55 years.
19.40 " " " " 55 and 70 years.
Only 1.66 " " " over 70.

Of 21,700 cases reported,—

42.21 per cent. were white persons born in the United States.
8.58 " " " colored persons born in the United States.
3.52 " " " Canadians.
5.60 " " " British.
11.94 " " " German.
19.54 " " " Irish.
1.53 " " " Scandinavians.
1.77 " " " Poles and Russians.

The rest were of miscellaneous origin in very small ratios. Of over 6,600 cases,—

75.77 per cent. could both read and write.
5.84 " " " read, but not write.
18.59 " " " neither read nor write.

If it were in the province of this report to forsake the ground of simple retrospection and history, it would be interesting to comment on these social conditions; but the studious philanthropist will find

in the tables accompanying the report material for his own instructive generalizations. Yet a word may be said here to enforce the value of keeping uniform records, so that ample and trustworthy statistics may be had. Charity Organization is far from claiming that the problems of pauperism have been solved. It only promises that they shall be studied, so that the causes and sources of misery may be discovered and appropriate methods for dealing with its manifold forms adopted. Our societies are the only agencies in the United States through which authentic statistics can be gathered, not only covering a census of relief-seekers, but eliciting the causes of pauperism and exhibiting the results of various methods of dealing with it. This sort of information, if carefully collected and collated, will soon become a treasury of details to which the sociologist will confidently resort, and on which legislators, reformers, and workers among the poor have already begun to base their courses of conduct. The function is one of wide public importance, and is well worth performing.

Sanitary Work.— Improvement of the hygienic conditions of humble life comes to Charity Organization Societies only as an incident of dealing with special, and these generally desperate, cases of bad domiciles. It is a matter ultimately controlled by legislation, and this depends on the diffusion of information as to the necessity for and the modes of doing it. The subject will be returned to later on; but our societies in the larger cities have given it much painstaking consideration, and seldom lose it from sight. The methods used by them are appeals to landlords and to boards of health in particular cases, the removal of their beneficiaries from unwholesome quarters, the promotion of open-air excursions for women and children, and the obtaining of country homes for those who will remove to them. (See Appendix G.)

Classified Disposition of Cases. (See Appendix I.) — From the beginning Charity Organization Societies in the United States have followed a plan of recording the disposition made of applicants whose cases came under their charge, which conformed in a general way to that of the great parent society in London. Modifications of it necessarily have taken place to suit the conditions of each locality, and it is probable that in minor phases of the work no two societies are alike. But the general outlines are preserved, and to the tabulation of such statistics a larger number of societies have contributed

than to any other department of this report. There are forty-four of them whose reports have been received, and these embrace the treatment given to the huge number of nearly 75,000 cases. With the exception of a few cities, this number embraces only new and not recurrent applications, and hence represents the fresh expansion of the work in the year 1892. Of this total, 4.76 per cent. were adjudged to require continuous relief because of orphanage, age, or chronic disability; 24.84 per cent. needed the temporary aid which combats an emergency, as of sickness or injury or the cessation of wages; employment would have released 16.05 per cent. from the necessity of asking any alms, were they disposed to labor honestly to get their own living; 3.39 per cent. had means of their own or relatives able to provide for them; 10.33 per cent. were of such profligate habits that any merchandisable relief would have prolonged their dissolute self-indulgence; 1.58 per cent. were placed in institutions; 7.72 per cent. were put in charge of religious organizations or of voluntary charitable societies; for only 0.76 per cent. was the interference of the police authorities invoked; for but 0.89 per cent. was recourse had to municipal relief officers, to supplement the care of private charity; for 11.13 per cent. churches, synagogues, and humane societies wrought in co-operation with our societies; for 6.6 per cent. individual citizens supplied all or a part of the aid required; 0.8 per cent. were enabled by loans to establish themselves in some form of industry; for 18.04 per cent. was employment obtained; 0.65 per cent. were removed to new situations or the care of kindred. The efforts of sixteen societies are estimated to have brought to self-maintenance 1,524 cases, or 2.04 per cent.; but this item is far below the facts, inasmuch as many of the larger societies have, for various reasons, discontinued computing and recording these recoveries to independence. Owing to the different methods of keeping their records, and of making the returns compiled in the reports of the various societies, exact deductions cannot be made, and the same cases must appear in two or more classes. In some returns only new applicants are recorded. In others, as in Brooklyn and Philadelphia, recurrent cases are included. But recurrent cases also form part of the year's work. It is probable, therefore, that a tide of over 100,000 families and individuals flowed through the conduits of the Charity Organization Societies. If they are grouped in large generalizations, those who

need employment being placed, as for the most part shirkers of labor, with the vicious and those having resources sufficient to make beggary unjustifiable, and those receiving loans counted with those assisted to labor, it may be affirmed as approximately true that three-tenths of this vast array of alms-seekers really need material succor, and an equal number do not need it at all; of the charge of one-tenth our societies have been wholly relieved by placing them in other care, which has been freely and cordially supplied; for nearly one-fifth the co-operation of other societies and of individuals and municipal officers has been obtained; and for one-fifth relief by employment was found adequate. It is probable that these ratios fairly represent the experience thus far of those engaged in Charity Organization work and methods.

Provident Schemes. (See Appendix H.) — Graduation from dependence to self-maintenance is an expression which, if it did not originate among the Charity Organizationists of Boston, is at least familiar to all engaged in this work throughout the United States. It describes the aim of the reforms of relief systems, and the degree of achievement in it is the supreme test of our principles. If there is to be no elevation of our wards into self-support, then Charity Organization Societies only add to the alms-doling of which the consequences have been so pernicious to society. Whatever may educate the downcast to the standards, habits, and sentiments essential to self-maintenance, and free them from the need of the intervention of others, commands the hearty advocacy and re-enforcement of our societies. Far beyond the provident schemes which they control has been the influence they have exerted in inducing others to promote and support enterprises for the propagation of thrift, frugality, skill in the common affairs of life, and an honorable self-respect. Thus in cities where Charity Organization Societies have been planted and acquired their characteristic influence there has been a very conspicuous contemporaneous growth in the number and variety of provident enterprises. And our societies claim that this is not a mere chance, but the direct result of their teachings, and generally the result of the personal labors of their own members. For example, the kindergarten system of the public schools of Philadelphia began with an association formed among the ladies of the Charity Organization Society, and they ceased not to labor until their work was taken up by the Board of Education during the superin-

tendency of Dr. McAllister; and the present grand development of industrial education and manual training in that city was inaugurated and nursed by the same society. The Associated Charities of Boston directly controls few provident schemes; but persons active in the direction of that association have promoted co-operative savings-banks and building associations and seen the day nurseries double in ten years, kindergartens become a part of the public school system, and industrial schools double. In Brooklyn the founder of the Pratt Institute was an earlier counsellor and advocate of the Bureau of Charities. In New York day nurseries have multiplied eightfold, kindergartens nearly as rapidly, boys' clubs, working-girls' associations, and manual training schools have been opened, and savings funds have been started. Remarkable expansion of like agencies is reported from Cincinnati, Detroit, and other important cities. Buffalo took the lead in establishing crèches, or nurseries where mothers could leave their infants to be cared for while they went to their day's work; and now there are twenty-two cities in which one hundred and five such institutions have been established at the instigation or under the control of Organization Societies. As many cities maintain over one hundred and forty-eight kindergartens. Laundries, work-rooms, cooking, sewing, and other industrial schools have in like manner been called into existence.

Savings Funds.—In seventeen cities Charity Organization Societies control penny savings funds. These are of four sorts: simple Provident Societies, taking small deposits at the counter; Stamp Banks, where deposit stamps are sold at stations in different parts of the city,— Boston having one hundred and twenty-three, and New York two hundred and six stations; and Funds to receive small deposits gathered by visitors, who call at houses for them, as in Newport, R.I., and Castleton, S.I.,— an ingenious system, which combines with great effectiveness the work of the Friendly Visitor with the encouragement of savings; and Fuel Funds, by means of which the deposits of the summer secure deliveries of wood and coal in the winter at cost price. Eighteen such provident fund organizations were known to exist in 1892 under the auspices of our societies, gathering in the savings of 33,826 depositors. The habits of self-restraint and thrift thus inculcated among the very poor are invaluable, and among the best of defences against the spread of pauperism among the depositors. (See Appendix H.)

Distribution by States.— Of the Charity Organization Societies, and those in correspondence with them with adjustments to their principles, existing in 1892, there are sixteen in the State of New York, fourteen in Massachusetts, eight in New Jersey, five in Ohio, four in Connecticut, three each in Maine, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Colorado, Indiana, Wisconsin, California, two each in Iowa, Michigan, Illinois, Kentucky, Nebraska, Minnesota, Missouri, and one each in South Carolina, Tennessee, Louisiana, Oregon, Delaware, and Washington State. In other words, the movement has established itself in twenty-nine cities of the Middle Atlantic States north of the Potomac, in twenty-four cities of New England, in eleven cities of States north of the Ohio, in eleven cities between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, in seven cities in the old South, and in five cities of the Pacific States. There are eighteen States in which it has not penetrated. It has had its most rapid extension in the cities of the North Atlantic seaboard and of the Pacific Coast. In agricultural States the development has been slow: for evident reasons its expansion has an affinity with commerce. Also, it may be observed that the movement has thus far had but little development in towns predominantly manufacturing or interested in mining, and hence the interesting question arises as to how far trades-unions, labor federations, and the mutual benefit societies, so common and so influential among artisans and mechanics, render the services of Charity Organization superfluous.

Special Lines of Development. *Attitude toward Relief.*— As each community has its distinctive characteristics, so each Charity Organization Society inevitably adjusts itself to them, and diversities of practice and development spring up. These variations are desirable as enlarging the number of experiments tried and as throwing side-lights upon special problems. In one particular there is a growing unison of judgment. In the returns of the sixty societies contributing to this report there is no advocacy or defence of relief-giving from their own treasuries. On the contrary, those societies which practise it either deprecate or excuse it. In some instances, it is justified as a necessity growing out of the lack of other charitable agencies; in others, as a means of forcing on a retrenchment of municipal outrelief, especially where overseers of the poor refuse information and co-operation; in still others, it is explained as grounded in the fact

that the community does not understand or kindly receive our principles, and will not sustain a society that is purely administrative. Again, it is apologized for as the effectual means of bringing all the benevolent work of a community into one system and control. In several cities the societies affirm that they are receding from the distribution of alms, and desire to abandon it. All this testimony is a distinct indication of the advance of our principles, and of an intelligent perception of the function of Charity Organization. The matter is of prime importance, for upon this rock of almsgiving many a society has been wrecked. It was nine years from the formation of the London Society to the foundation of the first Charity Organization Society in this country. Its literature and arguments were republished here, nor was a knowledge of Chalmers's work in Glasgow and of the reform movements in Hamburg, Leipzig and Elberfeld unknown. Associations for Improving the Condition of the Poor were formed under this and other names in several American cities, and they avowed principles which Charity Organization could only reiterate; but they lapsed into mere dispensers of physical aid. In the history of the movement derived from London there are wrecks along the way. Some of our societies have withdrawn from the field, and others have degenerated from like causes. There is in benevolent work a constant tendency to degenerate into mere almsgiving,— a fact easily explained, for relief of this sort is easily accomplished, the statistics of results are more imposing, and the value of moral, educational, and personal forces in mitigating social evils the public mind has not learned to estimate aright.

The existence in a city of an association professedly devoted to the welfare of the poor, but which expressly announces that it gathers no funds for supplying material relief, is a phenomenon certain to attract attention. Men will ask: "What does it do? What are the reasons of its being?" In this way it begins to exert an influence on the administration of other funds and other societies and upon individuals. From dispassionate and careful observers it is learned that in many cities official outdoor relief, where not abolished, has become more discriminating, that the management of voluntary charities has become more circumspect and elevating, and that personal almsgiving has been accompanied with a clearer sense of responsibility. In two conspicuous instances — Lawrence, Mass., and Cleveland, Ohio,— there was a fairly complete readjustment on

the part of the leading general relief societies of each city to Charity Organization principles.

Adaptations.— In adapting themselves to the conditions existing in different communities, our societies have found a law of development which gives to each especial characteristics. Thus the co-operation of the police in Buffalo was the beginning there of the registration system, and gave the society a close relation to municipal relief; while the munificent Fitch trusts gave a vigorous impulse to the elaboration of provident and hospital schemes. Bridgeport, Conn., has directed its efforts especially toward women and children, providing instruction in sewing, kitchen-garden work, day nurseries, and a labor bureau. Lynn engages in all-around work, its one woman registrar doing the duty of a society for the prevention of cruelty to children and of a children's aid society. Boston, besides its own conferences on treatment of cases, has maintained a conference of representative delegates from the charitable societies and institutions of the city, where problems of general humane interest are discussed and modes of alleviating various forms of suffering are formulated. Philadelphia, after experimenting with many educational, labor, and provident schemes, made dealing with the homeless and wayfaring the characteristic work of its central office, in which Bryn Mawr, a place exposed to the tramp nuisance, followed. Indianapolis established a Loan Association, a Friendly Inn, and a Board of Children's Guardians which commanded especial interest. Salem, Mass., found gratification in supplying baby-carriages to poor families. Several of our principal societies emphasize registration and investigation, and have brought their bureaus to a highly orderly system and a prompt effectiveness. One large society (Philadelphia) claims that relief has become much more prompt of application,— a claim in direct contravention to the popular belief that investigation retards assistance. The favorite and more general relief expedient is found in employment offices and labor tests, and the most widely and deeply felt hindrance to effective work is reported to be the insufficiency of trained and persistent Friendly Visitors.

Friendly Visiting.— An ideal which most of the strongly organized societies have sought to attain, with varying degrees of success, has been that of inducing men and women having strength of character to go to the homes of the needy, each taking the chief responsibility for the proper development, material and moral, of a few families.

The societies in Boston, Brooklyn, Baltimore, and Cincinnati, have been most successful in carrying out this plan, and commend its usefulness with enthusiasm. Other societies, however, report that their effort to find visitors of sufficient judgment and experience to undertake the delicate and responsible work of properly helping a family has had meagre results.

Causes for this lack of success may be found, first, in the great burden entailed by proper registration and by examination of conditions in our largest cities, which leave comparatively little free energy for securing and training visitors. A second cause is found in the great pressure of life upon well-to-do people in large cities, leaving little time for personal service in the distant homes of the poor. A third lies in the comparative ignorance on the part of cultivated people of "how the other half lives." This ignorance, of course, disqualifies. Not until the churches awake with enthusiasm to caring for our less fortunate neighbors in the wise and helpful good Samaritan spirit will there be sufficient attention brought to bear upon the mass of poverty to have appreciable effect. The forces at command are too limited. It may be said, however, that where the Charity Organization Society has taken hold of the work of friendly visiting in earnest, as in Boston, the experience of the visitors has had its effect in developing higher standards of duty in church life.

Emergencies.— A peculiar and severe test of Charity Organization Societies has come in the demands made by special emergencies. The Chicago Relief and Aid Society reached a position of commanding influence, and was led to the adoption of many of these principles by acting as the distributor of the large funds contributed for the aid of sufferers by the great fire of 1872. All agencies familiar with the poor and with relief came into immediate co-operation. Under this system the work was rapidly carried on, and the Relief and Aid Society established relations so friendly and intimate with other charitable organizations that it has been able ever since to maintain a commanding position in the confidence of the people of that city.

Boston was moved to the steps which resulted in her Associated Charities by the suffering consequent upon its great fire of 1872, and on the commercial crisis which began in 1873 and brooded over the land for two or three years. The Malden (Mass.) society was formed to alleviate the distress caused by a great fire in 1875.

When the disastrous flood of February, 1884, prevailed at Cincinnati, by which five hundred and four families were driven from their homes and otherwise involved in such distress as compelled them to appeal for help, recourse was had at once to the services of the Associated Charities. The official report states that that society "entered most heartily into the work, and through their thoroughly organized district societies distributed large quantities of supplies throughout the flooded sections of the city with great discretion and without waste." The authorities publicly acknowledged the debt of gratitude owing to the members of the Associated Charities "who so zealously devoted their time and thoughtful labor to the assistance of the committee in its charitable work." The labor undertaken by the Associated Charities may be estimated from the fact that $194,400 was contributed to relieve the misery caused by the flood, of which $91,400 was locally distributed; and upon that society depended largely the discreet distribution of relief, and the protection of the funds from the assaults of imposture.

At the time of the terrible Johnstown flood the District of Columbia Committee to gather aid for the sufferers sent the secretary of the Associated Charities of Washington thither as their agent. His experience was of immediate value in not only bringing the relief work into order, but in providing methods by which sturdy and clamorous petitioners for help were repressed, women, aged and feeble persons obtained due and equal consideration, and the early miscarriages of relief were effectively corrected. The agent found occasion to lament that Johnstown did not afford that information concerning its poor inhabitants and that supply of competent workers which Charity Organization acquires where it has been established.

In 1889 a disastrous fire swept over an area of twenty-five acres in Lynn, rendering one hundred and seventy-five families homeless, and putting seven thousand persons out of employment. The information accumulated by the Associated Charities, covering many families, was instantly available. The skill of its visitors, agents, and managers, came into immediate requisition for the preparation of record blanks and the systematizing of the distribution of food, clothing, and shelter. A delegation of experienced visitors came from the society in Boston, and during the six days in which a more general relief committee was taking form and acquiring funds and stores the Associated Charities was giving order and shaping meth-

ods which alleviated immediate distress and facilitated subsequent operations. Then the registration, personal knowledge, and experience due to Charity Organization proved to be invaluable for promptness and efficacy.

The tornado of Louisville in May, 1890, by which seventy-six lives were lost and two hundred persons were injured, created great suffering. The Board of Trade Relief Committee expended $156,000 in alleviating it, and employed the visitors and agents of the Charity Organization Society as its investigators and almoners. Their knowledge and expertness were indispensable. When in the same year Lawrence (Mass.) was swept by a cyclone by which eight persons were killed, twenty-one severely injured, and many buildings were damaged or destroyed, the city authorities called upon our local society to plan, organize and administer the needed relief. In the Park Place disaster in New York, May, 1891, when sixty-three persons were killed or injured, those in charge of the Mayor's Relief Fund invoked the aid of the Charity Organization Society, and within a week the particulars of each case were collected, and recommendations made which were followed in the distribution of the fund contributed for the sufferers. By the same means the $7,000 collected by the New York *Herald* for the same disaster were disbursed. Acknowledgment was made by the Mayor's Committee in these terms: "We realize that only experienced and skilful agents could make so satisfactory reports within so short a time, and congratulate the city that it has a society which can render such efficient aid in times of sudden emergency." This capacity to act in emergencies cannot seem strange to those who consider the readiness for prompt work secured by a registration bureau, by a large staff of trained agents and visitors familiar with the aspects of want, and by a co-operative scheme which embraces the whole field of benevolent work among the destitute.

Indirect Effects of Charity Organization.— It is to be observed that from its first appearance in America Charity Organization has surveyed the field in which it established itself, to discover what was lacking there and to devise better methods for improving the condition of the poor. Not solicitous of aggrandizement, it has been content to stimulate the creation of new educational and provident measures under independent control, and to which its administration might be supplementary. Consequently, many agencies

have sprung into existence at its instigation, the work of which cannot be recorded as part of its annals. The influence of Charity Organization on municipal relief, on the inception and management of other charities, and on public sentiment, has been already sufficiently indicated. It should, however, be added that in Philadelphia the Children's Aid Society had its initial impulse among the active workers of the Charity Organization Society. In Indianapolis the society crushed out the Vincennes Lottery and waged war with the wine-rooms. The Denver society procured the creation of a State Board of Charities.

Legislation.— Not the least of the labors undertaken in this movement are the efforts to amend legislation. In Massachusetts the separation of the pauper from the criminal class in public institutions has been accomplished. There and in New York strenuous efforts have proceeded from our societies to restrict the sale of alcoholic liquors; the poor-relief laws have been amended. In the same States the statutes have defined tenement-houses so as to bring a larger number under official inspection, new requirements have been imposed by sanitary laws, and in Boston an alliance has been made with the Technological Institute to examine and secure complaints and reports on the violation of sanitary principles. In New York a law has been secured authorizing the city to open municipal lodging-houses, to relieve the station houses of wayfarers and secure their cleanliness, but the provisions of the statute are still held in abeyance. Another was enacted providing for small parks and open spaces for play-grounds by the demolition of some of the worst squares of tenements in the overcrowded sections of the city; and immigration has been made a subject of careful investigation, and recommendations prepared for submission to Congress. When the fear of the spread of cholera in the summer of 1892 created the necessity for rigorous sanitary precautions in this country, the Charity Organization Society of Buffalo, through its Committee on Sanitary Condition of the Homes of the Poor, offered the services of its agents to the Health Commissioner as Sanitary Inspectors of tenement-houses. He gladly accepted these services. These agents made a thorough inspection of some five hundred tenements in the city of Buffalo, and obtained and collated a large amount not only of sanitary, but of sociological information as well. The result proved, to the satisfaction of the Committee on the Sanitary Con-

dition of the Homes of the Poor, that gross abuses existed in the tenements of the city, which were due, on the one hand, to the lax building-laws of the city and the absence of rigorous regulations to govern the owners of tenement-houses, and, on the other hand, to the tenants themselves. As a result, the committee began an agitation for the adoption of a complete set of ordinances governing the construction and management of tenement-houses. Into this movement it drew the Buffalo Builders' Exchange and the Buffalo Chapter of the American Society of Architects. A number of meetings were held jointly of the Health Commissioner, the Commissioner of Buildings, a medical and legal member of the Committee on Sanitary Condition of the Homes of the Poor, a representative of the Builders' Exchange, and a representative of the Society of Architects, which resulted in the presentation to the Common Council of the city, by the Health Commissioner, of probably one of the most complete codes of ordinances governing the subject that has ever been framed. A great deal of pressure, stimulated by the committee and exerted on the Common Council, finally secured the adoption of these ordinances. In several societies there is a department of legal advice, in which professional service is rendered gratuitously to prevent injustice or secure the poor in their rights.

Education.— It is gratifying to note that since Charity Organization Societies began to be formed for the study of social problems, and to accumulate information and statistics concerning them, seminaries or departments for the investigation of like sociological questions have been established at Harvard, Yale, Johns Hopkins, Cornell, Pennsylvania, Vanderbilt, Leland Stanford, and Chicago Universities, at the State Universities of Ohio, Michigan, and Nebraska, at Amherst and Bryn Mawr Colleges, and in connection with some of these institutions occasional or serial papers are published from time to time. This subject was brought up at the Omaha Conference of Charities and Correction in 1887, and the introduction of the study of Charity Organization into high schools, colleges, and universities recommended. Representatives of our societies have been called upon to lecture on these themes in several colleges and theological seminaries, especially in the prominent ones in or within easy reach of the leading cities, and also before audiences assembled in churches.

Literature.— A list of papers, essays, and books issued by the

Charity Organization Societies of America, and distributed by them, is appended to this report. (See Appendix L.) The literature concerning the social problems of poverty is very large, and could not be enumerated here if it were pertinent to a report so specialized in the history of a single movement as this. Attention should be called here to the *Monthly Register*, which began with the first year of the Philadelphia Society, and has been continued ever since in that city. It has been accepted as a sort of representative organ by many sister societies, and is the oldest periodical controlled by a Charity Organization Society in the United States. *Lend a Hand* is a monthly edited by Rev. Dr. E. E. Hale, published in Boston and devoted to philanthropic work. The *Charities Review* was begun in November, 1891, by the New York society, and aims at a thorough and scientific treatment of charitable principles, methods, and administration. Cincinnati produces the *Children's Home Monthly*.

This report has abstained from reflections and recommendations almost wholly. Its scope was restricted in the original instructions of this Conference to the History of Charity Organization in the United States. Already it has grown voluminous, but it is simply retrospective. Had it been possible to obtain returns from all the Charity Organization Societies of the country as ample and painstaking as those from Boston, the results would have a greatly increased value. Such material as could be obtained has been collated here, and perhaps the student of philanthropy will find in its text and tables matter not unworthy of reflection. It may yet, with all its imperfections, prove to be the basis of future comparative study. The results which it is enabled to present, and which are below rather than above the actual facts, show that Charity Organization has taken firm root in America, that its expansion has been very rapid, that it is purifying itself and rising to higher standards, that its educational force is potent, and that it is a harbinger of the day when the charities of men shall add to the benefactions of the purse those of their brains, their hearts, and their faith.

Necrology.

Only the sad task remains of inscribing on these pages the names of those who once wrought with us, imparted to us their hope, their tenderness, and their wisdom, and who have gone to repose on that

exhaustless divine charity which their loving spirits bravely tried, as the power was given them, to emulate. Some few of the many whose memory and example remain as benedictions to their associates must have a tribute here to meet the demands of our hearts. They were our pioneers and well known in our councils. An appended paper supplies the names of those reported to your committee at this time. (See Appendix M.) It is much regretted that the list is so imperfect.

Hodge.— With happy sagacity the Philadelphia Society called H. Lenox Hodge, M.D., to be its first president. Of honored lineage, of high professional eminence, of winning sweetness of disposition, he uttered judgments so wise and conciliatory that the divergent opinions of his associates melted into unison before them. His great influence was a tower of strength to the nascent society, and his name entrenched it in public confidence. He embodied that "sweetness and light" which Matthew Arnold thought to give the soul its noblest excellence. He died in the strength of his manhood and while president of the society.

McCulloch.— Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch was a magician of philanthropy. His was a scholar's diligence and enthusiasm in the study of the alleviation of human misery. No man was more dexterous in detecting the dictates of true charity and following them through the complexities and discords of social benevolence, for in his heart was the divine instinct which "beareth all things, believeth all things, hopeth all things." The Charity Organization Society of Indianapolis, founded under his leadership, is his monument; and to future generations may it long transmit his honored fame.

Vanderpoel.— During the first three years of its history the Charity Organization Society of New York enjoyed the leadership of Dr. S. O. Vanderpoel, when failing health compelled him to relinquish his presidency, and soon after (March 12, 1886) he died. His mature judgment, varied experience, conscientious diligence, and unvarying courtesy were invaluable to the society.

Johnston.— In September of the year 1886 Colles Johnston died, an earnest and faithful worker upon a district committee, and much in direct contact with the poor. Mr. Johnston brought to the service of the society an unusual degree of intelligent devotion, of wise discrimination, of fidelity to his assumed duties, and of strength and sweetness of character.

Minturn.— Robert B. Minturn, vice-president of the New York society and one of its original promoters, followed his colleague to the grave in 1891. His character secured public confidence, his counsels strengthened the society, his purse generously contributed to its support.

DuBois.— Mrs. Cornelius DuBois, one of the leading philanthropic spirits of this generation, died in 1888, a strenuous friend and upholder of the New York society in her official relations with other local institutions.

Tuckerman.— Lucius Tuckerman was an original active member of the council, of great wisdom and experience, and during his life a liberal supporter of the Society. He died in 1890.

Gibbons.— The New York society endured bereavement last year in the death of Mrs. Abby Hopper Gibbons. She was the daughter of Isaac T. Hopper, renowned in his day for his anti-slavery activity. Reaching the unusual age of ninety-two, her last venerable years were employed in leading the societies she still actively managed and counselled into co-operation in Charity Organization. Weight of years served to ripen her undaunted energy and far-seeing wisdom.

Preston.— Vicar-General Thomas S. Preston, who died last year, was an earnest and useful friend of the society in New York, and an efficient intermediary in all negotiations with the authorities and agencies of the Roman Catholic Church.

Brooks.— "By the death of Phillips Brooks the Associated Charities of Boston lost one of its most beloved and inspiring friends. He was on the first committee appointed to report a plan of organization and co-operation, and on the provisional council until the society was organized." It is recorded that "his eloquence and his great influence have been repeatedly exerted in the society's behalf. His ability and still more his personal character were such that whatever he touched gained from him beauty and dignity. His eloquent words at the various public meetings of the society set forth the scope of its work and the spirit that should pervade it in a way that exalted and ennobled it for all who heard him."

The Boston society also laments the loss of Mrs. James Lodge and Miss Mary Anne Wales, and a co-worker thus records the sense of bereavement: —

Wales.— "Miss Wales was distinguished by her untiring devotion to her work long after disease had laid its hand upon her. Her

chief happiness and the occupation of her life was in spending her money and herself in deeds of benevolence."

Lodge.— "Mrs. Lodge's gayety of heart, the pleasure she took in doing kindnesses, made her a constant source of cheerfulness and encouragement to her fellow-workers. To her and to Mrs. James T. Fields the society owes the first experiment in organized friendly visiting, which was the beginning of its success."

Pratt.— Charles Pratt, whose desire to elevate the depressed by bringing to them skill and discipline in industrial arts led him to found the munificent Pratt Institute of Brooklyn, was one of the founders and liberal upholders of the Bureau of Charities in that city.

Buzelle.— Of George B. Buzelle, the general secretary of the Brooklyn society from its inception until his death, it was declared, as his body was laid to rest: "He was one of God's noblemen. He had caught the spirit of his Master's words: 'Whosoever will be great among you shall be your minister. Whosoever of you shall be chiefest shall be servant of all.' He was not a hireling, he was not an official,— he was a man and a brother. No one could have known Mr. Buzelle without being impressed with his faithfulness. Nothing could stand between him and his duty." The chairman of this committee as his nearest neighbor in like responsibility, and all who have known him in these Conferences, and especially in the painstaking and eminently successful labors of this chairmanship a year ago, will testify that these words cover no exaggerations.

Osborn.— The first person to contribute to the Organized Charities Association of New Haven, Mrs. Walter Osborn, continued its generous friend until her death last year. She was a conspicuous supporter of all enterprises of the university city designed to make the lives of the lowly and indigent ampler and better.

Dunlap.—Mrs. Harriet A. Dunlap. was one of the most devoted, intelligent, and efficient women of Syracuse, and was president of several of its largest and oldest charitable institutions. A faithful friend, worker, and officer of the Bureau of Labor and Charities. She died in 1884.

Minor.— In the same city Rev. Ovid Minor, a Congregational minister, died in 1891. He was especially devoted to the care and rescue of children from neglect and exposure. A warm philanthropist, he was an indefatigable worker for the improvement of society.

Judson.— The Syracuse Bureau of Labor and Charities also recalls the cordial friendship and diligence of Mrs. Sarah Judson, a gentlewoman of invincible energy and of extraordinary discrimination and skill in the treatment of the class of cases that come before the Charity Organization workers. She rested from her labors Dec. 24, 1891.

Jacobs.— Denver mourns the loss in 1892 of Mrs. Frances Jacobs, who so won the confidence and esteem of that entire community that at her obsequies the city stood still while Christians, Catholic, and Protestant alike vied with her fellow-Hebrews in loving honors to her memory; and a hospital that bears her name was established by popular contributions, as her monument.

It would be a grateful task to linger over these tributes to the memories of departed colleagues who live still in our esteem, but time forbids. These were, among many others we would name did space permit, by priority of labors or by eminence of influence, men and women of so wide note that their names could not be passed in silence. Others have wrought with no less consecration of heart, no less generosity of thought and hand. Gratitude for the inspiration of their example, for the quickening touch of their noble personality, follows them beyond the tomb. We love to think of these souls, so radiant here with pure charity, having done their humane work to the least of these His brethren, as having entered into the joy of their Lord.

Charles D. Kellogg, New York, *Chairman*,
P. W. Ayres, Cincinnati,
T. Guilford Smith, Buffalo,
J. W. Walk, M.D., Philadelphia,
W. R. Walpole, Portland, Ore.,
Of the Committee.

APPENDIX A.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETIES IN NORTH AMERICA.

In Correspondence with each other as Occasion arises.

UNITED STATES.

DATE OF ORG'N.	CITY OR TOWN.	NAME.	LOCATION.	CORRESPONDING OFFICER.
1889.	Albany, N Y.	Charity Organization Society.	8 Douw's Buildings.	John Moir, Gen. Sec.
1890.	Auburn, Me.	Associated Charities.	53 Drummond St.	Miss Ruth Caswell, Sec.
1881.	Baltimore, Md.	Charity Organization Society.	12 Wilson Building.	Miss M. E. Richmond, Gen. Sec.
1886.	Bangor, Me.	Associated Charities.	9 Hayward St.	Mrs. Frances H. Noble, Sec.
1885.	Binghamton, N.Y.	Bureau of Associated Charities.	96 Chenango St.	Mrs. J. H. Barnes, Sec. and Treas.
1879.	Boston, Mass.	Associated Charities.	41 Charity Building.	Miss Z. D. Smith, Gen. Sec.
1886.	Bridgeport, Conn.	Associated Charities.	248 Main Street.	Mrs. H. E. Raymond, Cor. Sec.
1878.	Brooklyn, N.Y.	Bureau of Charities.	69 Schermerhorn St.	
1877.	Buffalo, N.Y.	Charity Organization Society.	Fitch Institute, 165 Swan St.	Nathaniel S. Rosenau, Gen. Sec. and Treas.
1885.	Burlington, Iowa.	Charity Organization Society.	502½ Jefferson St., Room 2.	Miss M. E. Starr, Sec.
1881.	Cambridge, Mass.	Associated Charities.	Central Sq.	Miss S. A. Pear, Registrar.
1884.	Castleton, S.I., N.Y.	Charity Organization Society.	52 Jersey St., New Brighton.	Miss Ford, Sec.
1888.	Charleston, S.C.	Associated Charities Society.	Mills House, Meeting St.	Mrs. M. A. Rhett, Sec.
1883.	Chattanooga, Tenn.	Associated Charities.	731 Chestnut St.	W. J. Trimble, Supt.
1879.	Cincinnati, Ohio.	Associated Charities.	45 East 5th St.	Philip W. Ayres, Gen. Sec.
1881.	Cleveland, Ohio.	Bethel Associated Charities.	309 Spring St.	Henry N. Raymond, Supt.
	Clinton, Mass.	Associated Charities.		Mrs. Edward L. Green, Sec.
1886.	Davenport, Iowa.	Associated Charities.	115 West 6th St.	Mrs. Nettie F. Howard, Agent.
1889.	Decatur Ill.	Industrial and Charitable Union.		Miss E. M. Whitehurst, Sec.
1889.	Denver, Col.	Charity Organization Society.	Room 32, Court House.	Mrs. Izetta George, Registrar.
1880.	Detroit, Mich.	Association of Charities.	35 East Congress St.	Dr. Jas. A. Post, Gen. Sec.
1883.	District of Columbia.	Charity Organization Society.	In suspense.	
1888.	Fall River, Mass.	Associated Charities.	60 North Main St.	Miss Alice E. Wetherbee, Agent.
1890.	Hartford, Conn.	Charity Organization Society.	2 Grove St.	George B. Thayer, Supt.
1879.	Indianapolis, Ind.	Charity Organization Society.	Room 1, Plymouth Building.	James Smith, Gen. Sec.
1886.	Janesville, Wis.	Associated Charities.	Jackman's Block.	
	Lexington, Ky.	Charity Organization Society.		Mrs. Walter Scott, Pres.
1891.	Lincoln, Neb.	Charity Organization Society.	134½ South 12th St.	Miss Annie McCormick, Agent.
1891.	Lockport, N.Y.	Charity Organization Society.	12 Y. M. C. A. Building.	

Appendix A.— *Continued.*

DATE OF ORG'N.	CITY OR TOWN.	NAME.	LOCATION.	CORRESPONDING OFFICER.
1884.	Louisville, Ky.	Charity Organization Society.	221 East Walnut St.	Mrs. George Deering, Gen. Sec.
1885.	Lynn, Mass.	Associated Charities.	Lee Hall, Room 5, 10 City Hall Sq.	Miss Alice S. Taylor, Registrar.
1889.	Mansfield, Ohio.	Mansfield Humane Society.	King Building, Park Ave., West.	A. G. Thornton, Supt.
1884.	Marietta, Ohio.	Associated Charities.	4th St.	Wm. R. Buck, Rec. Sec.
1881.	Milwaukee, Wis.	Associated Charities.	416 Milwaukee St.	Howland Russel, Sec.
1884.	Minneapolis, Minn.	Associated Charities.	23 South 4th St.	George D. Holt, Sec.
1882.	Newark, N J.	Bureau of Associated Charities.	222 Market St.	J. Huyler Smith, Supt.
1884.	New Brunswick, N J.	Charity Organization Society.	Free Public Library.	Miss Mary Gordan Shand, Agent.
1886.	Newburg, N.Y.	Associated Charities.	65 Water St.	Mrs. Mary G. Wood, Supt.
1878.	New Haven, Conn.	Organized Charities Association.	200 Orange St.	Sherwood O. Preston, Agent.
1883.	New Orleans, La.	Conference of Charities.	223 St. Joseph St.	Miss Corinne Folger, Registrar.
1879.	Newport, R.I.	Charity Organization Society.	301½ Thames St.	Mrs. K. A. Curtis, Sec. and Agent.
1888.	Newton, Mass.	Associated Charities.	Newtonville Sq.	Mrs. M. R. Martin, Sec. and Agent.
1881.	New York City.	Charity Organization Society.	United Charities Building.	Charles D. Kellogg, Gen Sec.
1888.	Oakland, Cal.	Associated Charities.	418 Tenth St.	Newton Sewell, Gen. Supt.
1887.	Omaha, Neb.	Associated Charities.	807 Howard St.	H. M. James, Gen. Sec.
1878.	Orange, N.J.	Bureau of Associated Charities.	65 Essex Ave.	Miss Jennie Fancher, Agent.
1889.	Pasadena, Cal.	Charity Organization Society.	7 North Fair Oaks Ave.	Annie L. Bartlett, Sec.
1884.	Pawtucket, R.I.	Associated Charities.	3 Dorrance Building, 175 Main St.	Graham Cowperthwaite, Agent.
1878.	Philadelphia, Pa.	Society for Organizing Charity.	1705 Chestnut St.	Dr. James W. Walk, Gen. Sec.
1879.	Portland, Me.	Associated Charities.	Room 9, City Building.	Miss Celia M. Patten, Sec. and Treas.
1888.	Portland, Ore.	City Board of Charities.	213 Fourth St.	William R. Warpole, Sec.
1879.	Poughkeepsie, N.Y.	Charity Organization Society.	8 Cannon St.	Thomas L. Wing, 7 Garden St.
1892.	Providence, R.I.	Society for Organizing Charity.	128 North Main St.	Eli Whitney Blake, Jr., Gen. Manager.
1890.	Richmond, Ind.	Associated Charities.	109 North 12th St.	Mrs. Anna M. Starr, Sec.
1890.	Rochester, N.Y.	Charity Organization Society.	87 South Washington St.	Miss Helen D. Arnold, Sec. and Treas.
1885.	Saginaw, E.S., Mich.	Associated Charities.	100 Ward St.	Mrs. Emma Bronson, Sec.
1892.	St. Paul, Minn.	Associated Charities.	141 East 9th St.	James F. Jackson, Gen. Sec.
1891.	Salem, Mass.	Associated Charities.	175 Essex St.	Miss Anna C. Cross, Registrar.
1881.	Salem, N.J.	Society for Organizing Charity.	121 West Broadway.	Miss Anna H. Van Meter, Sec.
1888.	San Francisco, Cal.	Associated Charities.	425 Pine St.	Arthur G. Smiley, Registrar.
1885.	Springfield, Ohio.	Associated Charities.	West County Building.	H. H. Cumback, Supt.
1878.	Syracuse, N.Y.	Bureau of Labor and Charities.	4 Hendricks Block.	Charles de B. Mills, Gen. Sec.
1889.	Tarrytown, N.Y.	Provident Association.		Mrs. W. H. Moore, Sec.
1881.	Taunton, Mass.	Associated Charities.	Historical Hall.	Miss Charlotte L. Peckham, Supt.
1882.	Terre Haute, Ind.	Society for Organizing Charity.	501½ Ohio St.	W. C. Smallwood, Gen. Sec.
1891.	Tivoli, N.Y.	Charity Organization Society.	Madalin, N.Y.	Miss Kate Feroe, Sec.
1883.	Trenton, N.J.	Society for Organizing Charity.	116 West State St.	Miss M. M. Johnson, Sec.
1881.	Washington, D.C.	Associated Charities.	811 G St., N.W.	L. S. Emery, Gen. Sec.
1883.	Watertown, N.Y.	Bureau of Charities.	22 Stone St.	Mrs. U. C. Walker, Sec. and Agent.
1884.	Wilmington, Del.	Associated Charities.	837 Tatnall St.	Mrs. Mary A. T. Clark, Supt.
1890.	Worcester, Mass.	Associated Charities.	35 Pearl St.	Mrs. Eliza J. Lee, Gen. Sec.
1883.	Yonkers, N.Y.	Charity Organization Society.	3 Post-office Building.	George Rayner, Jr., Sec.

Appendix A.— *Concluded.*

The following Relief Societies have partly adapted Charity Organization Principles, and correspond with the Foregoing.

DATE OF ORG'N.	CITY OR TOWN.	NAME.	LOCATION.	CORRESPONDING OFFICER.
1884.	Bryn Mawr, Pa.	Citizens' Association.		Walter Bevan, Sec. and Treas.
1884.	Camden, N.J.	Society for Prevention and Relief of Poverty.	725 Federal St.	Abel Smith, Supt.
1872.	Chicago, Ill.	Relief and Aid Society.	51 La Salle St.	Rev. C. G. Trusdell.
1890.	Colorado Springs, Col.	Ladies' Aid Society.	Room 22, Bank Building.	Miss Louisa Schnapp, Agent.
1876.	Fitchburg, Mass.	Benevolent Union.	Room 50, Dickinson's Block, Main St.	Miss Alice Miller, Agent
1892.	Flushing, N.Y.	United Workers.	66 Locust St.	G. L. Gordon, Sec.
1880.	Kansas City, Mo.	Provident Association.	723 East 9th St.	Nicholas W. Casey, Sec.
1859.	Lawrence, Mass.	City Mission.	206 Essex St	Rev. Clark Carter, Sec. and City Missionary.
1887.	Madison, Wis.	Benevolent Society.	23 East Main St.	O. S. Norsman, Sec.
1875.	Malden, Mass.	Industrial Aid Society.		W. H. Sargent, Treas.
1875.	Pittsburg, Pa.	Ass'n Improv'g Condition of Poor.	76 Sixth Ave.	Mrs. S. E. Lippincott, Supt. and Sec.
1878.	Pittsfield, Mass.	Union for Home Work.	20 Dunham St.	
1878.	Plainfield, N.J.	Relief Association.	45 West 2d St.	Miss Anna J. Pray, Supt.
1881.	Pueblo, Col.	Benevolent Union.	223 Victoria Ave.	Joanna S. Sperry, Pres. and Manager.
1892.	Seattle, Wash.	Board of Friendly Visitors.		Mrs. Charles F. Fishback, Pres.
1877.	St. Louis, Mo.	Provident Association.	1820 Madison St.	W. J. Clark, Supt.
1876.	Springfield, Mass.	Union Relief Association.	7 City Hall.	James H. Lewis, Sec.
1892.	Waterbury, Conn.	Directors of Christian Visitation and Charity.	77 Kingsbury St.	Rev. Horace George Hoadley, Supt.

DOMINION OF CANADA.

	Toronto.	St. George's Society.	7 Louisa St.	
1884.	Halifax.	Ass'n Improv'g Condition of Poor.	61 Granville St.	

APPENDIX B.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETIES OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1882.

CITY.	POPULATION, 1880.	YEAR OF FORMATION.
Baltimore,	332,213	1881
Boston,	362,535	1879
Brooklyn,	566,663	1879
Buffalo,	176,607	1877
Cambridge,	52,669	1881
Cincinnati,	255,139	1879
Cleveland,	160,146	1881
Detroit,	185,000	1880
Indianapolis,	75,056	1879
Milwaukee,	175,000	1881
Newark,	136,000	1882
New Haven,	60,000	1878
Newport, R.I.,	15,693	1879
New York,	1,300,000	1882
Orange, N.J.,	13,207	1878
Philadelphia,	843,000	1878
Portland, Me.,	33,810	1879
Poughkeepsie,	20,207	1879
Salem, N.J.,	5,056	1881
Syracuse,	51,792	1878
Taunton, Mass.,	21,213	1881
Washington, D.C.,	177,624	1881
	5,069,330	

AFFILIATED SOCIETIES.

CITY.	POPULATION, 1880.	YEAR OF FORMATION.
Chicago,	503,185	1872
Fitchburg, Mass.,	12,429	1876
Kansas City,	55,785	1880
Lawrence, Mass.,	41,000	1859
Malden, Mass.,	12,017	1875
Pittsburg,	156,389	1875
Pittsfield, Mass.,	13,364	1878
Plainfield, N.J.,	81,125	1878
Pueblo, Col.,	3,217	1881
St. Louis, Mo.,	350,518	1877
Springfield, Mass.,	33,340	1876
	1,262,369	

APPENDIX C

Population, 4,866,550. Not Relief Givers.	Population, 2,998,950. Relief Givers.	Population, 714,650. Emergent Relief Givers.
Albany, N.Y.	*Bryn Mawr, Pa.	Auburn, Me.
Baltimore.	Cleveland, Ohio.	Bangor, Me.
Boston.	*Kansas City, Mo.	Bridgeport, Conn.
Brooklyn, N.Y.	*Lawrence, Mass.	Buffalo.
Burlington, Ia.	*Malden, Mass.	Davenport, Ia.
Castleton, S.I., N.Y.	New Haven, Conn.	Minneapolis.
Charleston, S.C.	Newton, Mass.	Newburg, N.Y.
Cincinnati.	Pasadena, Cal.	Omaha.
Detroit.	Pawtucket, R.I.	Pueblo, Cal.
Hartford.	Philadelphia.	
Indianapolis.	Richmond, Ind.	
Lincoln, Neb.	Salem, N.J.	
Lynn, Mass.	Springfield, Ohio.	
Newark, N.J.	Taunton, Mass.	
New Brunswick, N.J.	Tivoli, N.Y.	
Newport, R.I.	Trenton, N.J.	
New York City.	Waterbury, Conn.	
Orange, N.J.	Wilmington, Del.	
Plainfield.	Worcester, Mass.	
Portland, Me.	Yonkers, N.Y.	
Providence, R.I.		
Rochester, N.Y.		
Salem, Mass.		
Seattle, Wash.		
Syracuse, N.Y.		

APPENDIX D.

The following is a schedule of questions submitted to each of the related Societies upon the replies of which this report is based.

Answers were requested where practicable for the year 1882 (or the first year of the organization of each), and for 1892 for purposes of comparison, as the several tables will show.

I. Preliminary.

1. Location of your Society; 2. Its legal name; 3. Date of organization, date of incorporation; 4. Local conditions which led to the formation of your Society; *a.* did it spring up independently, or was it initiated by older charitable organizations? *b.* state of legal administration of relief at that time (1. outdoor; 2. indoor); *c.* state of voluntary charity at the time; 5. Do you distribute alms from your own funds? 6. By what methods do you disseminate your views and principles, in order to gain adherents or improve the practice of others? 7. What do you publish in the way of periodicals? give titles; of occasional papers? give titles.

II. Organization.

1. Number of unpaid administrative officers: *a.* men; *b.* women; 2. Number of paid officers and agents: *a.* men; *b.* women; 3. Number of Friendly Visitors, voluntary workers and teachers: *a.* men; *b.* women; 4. Number of branch or district organizations controlled by your society; 5. Conferences, by Committees or Boards, concerning treatment of applicants; 6. Number of your contributors: *a.* individuals; *b.* associations or churches; *c.* amount received from municipal authorities; 7. Amount of your income; 8. Amount of invested funds; 9. Average number of cases assigned to Friendly Visitors.

III. Lines of Work Developed.

(*State number of instances or cases.*)

1. *Repression.*— a. Treatment of vagrants: (*a*) number turned over to police, (*b*) number lodged by your Society, (*c*) number employed in wood-yard or other like test places, (*d*) street beggars and impostors suppressed; b. fraudulent societies detected.

2. *Co-operation.*— a. With municipal or State boards: number in your town, number co-operating; b. with societies and institutions of relief (*e.g.*, relief societies, hospitals, orphanages, etc.): number in your town, number co-operating; c. with churches: number in your town, number co-operating; d. with individuals: population of town, number co-operating; e. to what extent (percentage) have you secured registration from (*a*) public official relief? (*b*) voluntary societies? (*c*) churches? (*d*) private charitable institutions? f. number of cases investigated for others.

3. *Provident Schemes in your City.*— a. Crèches, or nurseries: number of inmates; b. kindergartens; c. industrial training, as sewing, cooking, trade schools: (*a*) nat-

ure of, (*b*) number of, (*c*) beneficiaries of; d. savings funds: (*a*) number of depositors, (*b*) amount of deposits; e. co-operative beneficial societies: (*a*) nature of, (*b*) members of.

4. *Sanitary Work.*— a. Tenements improved through landlords or through changed habits; b. removal to better quarters; c. open-air excursions: number of beneficiaries; d. country homes secured; temporary outing; permanent.

5. *Other Agencies inaugurated and managed by your Society.*— a. Nature of; b. number of beneficiaries.

IV. Results.

1. Number of cases treated: a. accounted worthy of continuous relief (*i.e.*, orphans, aged, permanently disabled); b. worthy of temporary aid (*i.e.*, sick, injured, overtaken by emergency); c. accounted to need work rather than alms; d. not cases for relief: (*a*) because of having means or relatives able to provide for them, (*b*) because of vicious habits, imposture, shiftlessness; 2. Disposition made of cases: a. cases not taken in charge: (*a*) placed in institutions, (*b*) put in complete charge of churches or societies, (*c*) turned over to police; b. cases assumed for treatment: (*a*) aid procured from municipal or State relief boards, (*b*) aid procured from churches or societies, (*c*) aid procured from individuals, (*d*) aided by loans, (*e*) employment secured, (*f*) applicant's own resources adequately developed, (*g*) removed to care of relatives or new situations, (*h*) estimate of number brought to self-maintenance.

V. Analysis.

(*From National Statistical Blanks.*)

Social State.— Married couples, widows, deserted wives, single women, deserted husbands or widowers, single men, orphaned or abandoned children, divorced or separated (legally), adult brother and sister as one family.

Number and Ages.— Under 14, 14 to 20, 20 to 40, 40 to 55, 55 to 70, over 70, total number in family.

Nativity of Heads of Families.— United States, white; United States, colored; British-American, white; British-American, colored; Dutch, English, French, and Belgian, German, Italian, Irish, Polish, and Russian, Scandinavian, Scotch, and Welsh, Spanish, and Portuguese, Swiss, other countries.

Education of Heads of Families.— Can read and write; can read, not write; cannot read or write.

VI. Observations.

1. What changes of policy or method has your society made in its history? 2. What improvement in the condition of the dependent or alms-seeking poor has been achieved under the local observation of your society? 3. What improvement has been made in the administration of relief, either municipal or voluntary? 4. What phases of your work have been satisfactory? 5. What improvements of method do you think most desirable? 6. What local publications do you know of beyond your own on scientific charity? *a.* collegiate; *b.* university; *c.* State or political; *d.* general.

APPENDIX E.

FINANCE.

CITY OR TOWN.	CONTRIBUTORS.						INCOME.		INVESTED FUNDS.	
	INDIVIDUALS.		ASSOCIATIONS OR CHURCHES.		FROM CITY OR STATE.					
	1882.	1892.	1882.	1892.	1882.	1892.	1882.	1892.	1882.	1892.
Albany	73	201					$600 00	$1,022 00		
Auburn, Me.		22		Yes.				150 00		$180 00
Baltimore	77	614		8			1,345 00	6,533 00		1,000 00
Bangor, Me.				4				101 41		
Boston	1,631	1,285	13	16			11,282 63	17,444 28		25,650 00
Bridgeport, Conn										11,000 00 in Building.
Brooklyn, N. Y.	50	2,040		Yes.		$1,018 54	2,026 93	20 035 00		
Bryn Mawr								('91) 580 00		
Buffalo		155					3,443 00	6,734 57		308,872 99
Burlington, Iowa		50						167 00		
Castleton, S. I., N Y.		53						408 99		
Charleston, S. C.		175						875 00		5,000 00
Cincinnati	920	627		5			11,968 23	8,154 71		
Cleveland		400		27				9,000 00		
Davenport, Iowa		152		1				600 00		
Denver, Col.		503				10,000 00		23,000 00		
Detroit		250						2,300 00		
Hartford, Conn		112						1,000 00		
Indianapolis		439					1,200 00	6,025 00		
Kansas City, Mo.	134	212	2			$575 00	2,215 99	6,202 69		
Lawrence, Mass.			28	32		Free rent	2,584 43	3,050 48		
Lincoln, Neb		264		21				888 67		1,025 00
Lynn		30		3				1,100 00		
Milwaukee		500	11				2,470 00	3,690 00		750 00
Minneapolis		500		2				6,500 00		700 00
Newark, N. J	72	250					2,160 00	3,300 00		
New Brunswick		62						336 00		
Newburg, N. Y.		195						1,291 25		58 56
New Haven, Conn	125	197	10	12			2,018 38	4,705 61		8,500 00
Newport, R. I.								1,000 00		
Newton, Mass.		200						816 00		
New York City	324	2,274	4	61			15,537 00	40,926 00		41,351 00 + ¼ share in Charities Building, $150,000.
Omaha		600						4,300 00		
Orange, N. J.	70	325	3				946 19	1,424 17		
Pasadena, Cal								620 71		
Pawtucket, R. I.		150						1,300 00		500 00
Philadelphia	*159	*422				[1]$4,375 00	[2]24,437 28	47,850 95		
Plainfield, N. J.	131	152		Yes.	$617	889 00	2,164 83	2,393 83		
Portland, Me.						250 00				
Portland, Ore.		375						7,723 05		
Providence, R. I								2,000 00		
Rochester, N. Y.		250						2,000 00		
Salem, Mass.		101						1,000 00		400 00
Salem, N. J		8		5			219 69	282 84		
San Francisco, Cal.		243						4,189 99		
Seattle, Wash.		350						2,500 00		
Syracuse, N. Y.	53	142						2,348 75		
Taunton, Mass	40	41	8	9		700 00		700 00		
Tivoli, N. Y		35						200 00		
Trenton, N. J.		291						2,172 58		
Waterbury, Conn		83		7						
Wilmington, Del		106		28		75 00		4,667 42		
Worcester, Mass.		167		2						
Yonkers, N. Y., report of 1891		23						829 44		
	3,859	15,726	79	243	$617	$17,877 54	$86,019 58	$263,421 39		$409,027 55
		300.8%		207.6%				206.2%		

[1] These figures include only contributors to the Central Treasury, and not the hundreds of contributors to the Ward Associations, of whom no account is returned.

[2] Contributors to Ward Associations only. The contributions to the Central Treasury not returned, but probably about $15,000.

APPENDIX F.

Organization.

City or Town.	Administrative Officers.				Paid Officers or Agents.				Friendly Visitors.				Average Cases to Visitor.		Branch or District Organizations.		Conferences on Cases.	
	Men.		Women.		Men.		Women.		Men.		Women.							
	1882	1892	1882	1892	1882	1892	1882	1892	1882	1892	1882	1892	1882	1892	1882	1892	1882	1892
Albany	4	4			1	1				5		21		3				
Auburn, Me.						1						34		15				
Baltimore, Md.	11	41		8	1	1	2	11		41		195		3	1	8	1	8
Bangor, Me				5							14	18		4				24
Boston, Mass.	87	94	117	185	3		11	22		84	*642	683	1.98	2.27	14	15		504
Bridgeport, Conn				8							40							11
Brooklyn, N. Y.					1	5	1	6		113		*532						
Bryn Mawr, Pa.						3						17						12
Buffalo, N. Y.	43	51		28	2	5		2				12		1	2	3	2	3
Burlington, Ia.		2		2				1				*70						3
Castleton, S. I., N. Y.				12				1				48		2		3		
Charleston, S. C.								1				12						
Cincinnati, O.	21	13	24	15	5	8	4	3	30	70	35	145			11	1		6
Cleveland, O.		29		8		2		2				*75						
Davenport, Ia.		19		9				1										2
Denver, Col.		*13				1		3		30		30		5		16		52
Detroit, Mich.		3				2				50		75						
Hartford, Conn		40		4		1												12
Indianapolis, Ind.	40	30		16	1	1	1	5										52
Lawrence, Mass.		60				1						20						
Lincoln, Neb.		22		3		2		1				45						12
Lynn, Mass.		5		7				1				25						2
Milwaukee, Wis.	28	31	1	5	1	1	1	1							3	3	4	12
Minneapolis, Minn.		5				1		3		2		98		1.50		4		32
Newark, N. J	15	30	4	4	1	1	4	3			75	100	.67	.67	3	3	3	3
New Brunswick, N. J.		13		13			1	1			*46	*50	4	1.26	6	3	7	4
Newburg, N. Y.		8		13				1		4		25						
New Haven, Conn.	17	41	4	6	2	2	1	1			7	16		2				102
Newport, R. I.	10	13	4	3			1	1		3		13						26
Newton, Mass.		12		9				1			17	29						
New York City	21	54	2	8	4	9	6	31			235	218			6	10		5
Omaha, Neb.						3				5		135						
Orange, N. J.											38	60						
Pawtucket, R. I.		7		14		1						34		9				
Philadelphia, Pa.		34		2		14		13							21	17		
Plainfield, N. J		23		26	1	1	1	1			59	51		3				52
Portland, Me.								1			80	30						
Portland, Ore.		9				3		1		15		25		2		5		
Providence, R. I.						1												
Pueblo, Col		7	1	2			1	2		7	8	19						
Richmond, Ind				25				1										
Rochester, N. Y.		3		1				3				100		1		3		3
Salem, Mass.		5		4				1				53		1				3
Salem, N. J			3	4							33	25		4				11
San Francisco, Cal.		12		25		1		2		3		12						
Seattle, Wash.						1						107		2				27
Syracuse, N. Y.		9		2	1	2	1	1		21		28						36
Taunton, Mass.		14		8				1				18						
Tivoli, N. Y				10								8						
Trenton, N. J				4				1				13						52
Waterbury, Conn.		5				2						91		2				
Wilmington, Del.		12		13				2		2		86		5		6		3
Worcester, Mass.								2		1		53		2				
Total	297	763	160	511	24	77	36	135	30	456	1329	3534			67	100		
Increase		156.9%		219.4%		220%		275%		1400%		165.9%						
						253.3%				200%								

* No distinction of sex made in the returns. In this table administrative officers have been credited to men and Friendly Visitors to women where the returns make no distinction, because these are the sexes that predominate in those sorts of service.

N. B.—Examination of these figures will show that the correspondents by whom they were supplied varied greatly in their conceptions of the answers required. Conferences on Cases refers to meetings of officers and visitors to consider treatment of applicants. Where the figures are exact multiples or divisors of 12 and 52, they indicate monthly and weekly conferences. In some instances the figures evidently refer to the number of branch or district associations holding conferences. The columns are not added to a total where the result would be misleading.

APPENDIX G.

LINES OF WORK DEVELOPED, 1892.

APPENDIX H.

PROVIDENT SCHEMES, 1882-1892.

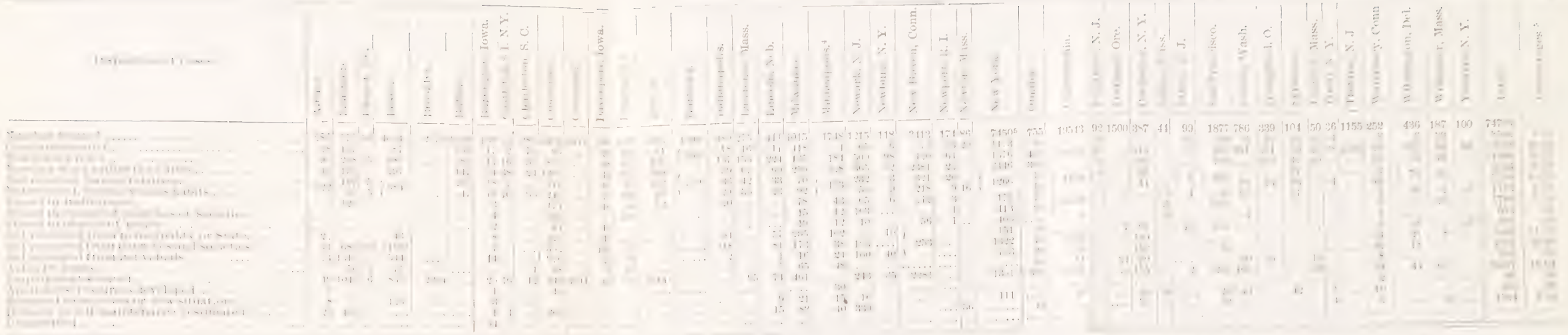
	Crèches or Day Nurseries.			Kindergartens.			Industrial Training Schools or Classes.								Savings Funds.								
							Cooking.		Sewing.		Manual or Trade.		Laundry.		Stamp Books.			General.			Fuel Funds.		
	No.	Admissions.	Increase.	No.	Pupil's.	Increase.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Beneficiaries.	No.	Depositors.	Deposits.	No.	Depositors.	Deposits.	Depositors.	Deposits.
		50 daily.		14							3	600						Provident.	16795[1]	$714588 92[1]		
		434 daily.	50%	43[2]		30%	1	104	1	18												
Syracuse, N. Y.		10 daily					14		12[3]	Incr. 100%	12[3]	Carpentry.[2]			123 stations	5000	$3671 91	Home.	551	2933 47		
	1	7646 yearly.	70%	1							2	Work rooms.	2	191				1	439	266 66		
				6	Fitch creche. City.																	
									3													
	1			1														1	476	2680 72		
				12		400%																
									1				1									
		75 daily.	100%	3																		
						267%			18									1	2569, inc. 1223%	42062 14,		
									In public schools.									4 co-operative banks.				
	1			1					1	125								81 co-operative stores.				
				2			1															
		20 daily.		1														1				
		50 daily.		4														1	Loan Society			
									Several.				1	50								
									2		1							1	399, inc. 21%	1316 88, incr. 410%		
New Haven, Conn.	1			[illegible]					1													
Newport, R. I.																						
Newton, Mass.																		1	400, inc. 80%	2222 11, inc. 32%		
New York		400 daily.		1														1	820	944 71		
[illegible]	1	36 daily.											1	105	[illegible]	26 42	15 [illegible]					
									3													
Plainfield, N. J.	2								1													
Portland, Or.				4														1	200	2421 87		
	2						1															
				1					1													
									2	16												
				3			1															
							1		1													
	1	12 yearly.							1													
[illegible]ton, Mass.									3													
[illegible]bury, Conn				1					1													
[illegible]gton, Del.	2			4														1	700	297 13		
[illegible]ester, Mass.	1																		765	806 94	37	$361 04
Total	[illegible]	est. 1095 daily.		148	4011		19		51	131			5	368		33794	$21446 07		24894	$771041 55	138	$361 04

[1] Not under the C. O. S.
[2] Part of public-school system.
[3] Churches conduct them.
[4] Girls' Club of 120 members.
[5] Kindergartens begun by women of the C. O. S., and maintained by an association of them until they were adopted and made part of the public-school system.
[6] One Sick and Aged Society with 40 members.
[7] 608 beneficiaries in both schools.

N. B.—Where not otherwise stated it is believed that the institutions enumerated were originated by members of Charity Organization Societies, and that the savings funds are under their control. Where no percentage of increase is given, there is no record of the existence of such institutions in 1882. Blank spaces do not necessarily indicate that there are no such institutions in the town, but only that they have not been returned to this Committee by its correspondents.

APPENDIX I.

CLASSIFIED CASES, TABLE I. (1892.)



[illegible] includes institutions. [illegible] of year 1889. [illegible] The remaining figures [illegible] which are for 1892. [illegible] Aided from Emergency Fund. [illegible] Some of the totals in this column contain [illegible] cases.

APPENDIX K.

Classified Cases, Table II. (1892).

	Albany.	Baltimore.	Boston.	Buffalo.	Burlington, Ia.	Castleton, S. I., N. Y.	Cincinnati.	Davenport, Ia.	Denver, Col.	Detroit.	Indianapolis.	Kansas City, Mo.	Lawrence, Mass.	Lincoln, Neb.	Milwaukee.	Minneapolis.	Newburg, N. Y.	New Haven, Conn. For non-residents.	New York. In percentages.	Philadelphia. For non-residents.	Plainfield, N. J.	Portland, Ore.	Salem, Mass.	Salem, N. J.	San Francisco.	Springfield, O.	Syracuse.	Tivoli, N. Y.	Waterbury, Conn.	Wilmington, Del.	Totals.	Percentage.
Married couples	108	279	629	379	49	28	1075	41	369	417	201	.....	93	220	..	173	39	...	43.2	164	..	156	29	...	415	184	73	4	57	101	5320	34.59
Widows	60	203	319	126	36	20	786	24	91	176	58	.....	38	68	67	63	32	...	20.1	143	..	66	10	..	361	111	8	3	13	28	2924	19.03
Deserted wives	11	51	111	67	4	4	225	10	108	91	65	.....	16	19	48	57	7	...	5.1	...	..	.....	3	..	45	30	18	2	9	14	1007	6.55
Single women	8	49	81	9	8	8	156	15	319	47	32	..	16	16	60	19	7	....	4.1	....	..	£6	2	....	39	6	....	3	4	8	970	6.30
Deserted husbands or widowers	26	34	37	9	1	1	231	5	.....	58	9	.....	30	24	3	37	....	....	7.3	....	....	.....	..	....	49	7	5	..	3	5	575	3.74
Single men	76	51	67	..	7	10	878	68	363	...	115	.....	82	55	455	311	7	....	20.	...	..	925	..	...	302	1	...	..	13	8	3979	25 86
Orphaned or abandoned children	.....	3	8	...	1	1	85	....	62	184	.....	.....	...	3	20	...	.....	.....	.1	193	..	.....	..	..	59	....	...	..	....	2	437	2.84
Divorced or separated (legally)	.....	2	5	....	1	..	46	..	83	10	9	..	...	6	3	...	.....	.....	3.	..	..	.....	..	..	...	...	...	..	.....	..	168	1.09
																															5380	100%
Under 14	174	1163	1895	1358	178		2701	...	840	1181	....	.....	277	627	....	801	....	20	40 3	....	..	.....	..	..	1518	630	235	16	157	260	13031	36.87
14 to 20	168	256	426	172	51	..	710	30	98	301	....	....	45	160	....	93	....	229	8.9	....	..	.....	..	..	385	172	40	1	27	53	3417	9.65
20 to 40	264	678	1199	688	81	..	2371	...	647	809	....	...	248	299	....	644	....	1747	31 5	....	..	.....	..	....	1172	257	149	6	61	190	11460	32 42
40 to 55	93	347	538	211	44	..	1326	.	39	386	....	.....	81	210	....	164	....	317	12.7	....	..	.....	..	....	533	205	22	4	83	48	4651	13.14
55 to 70	43	157	231	113	9	..	866	10	13	162	..	.....	34	71	....	32	....	158	5.1	....	..	.....	..	....	182	85	18	3	7	23	2217	6.26
Over 70	29	66	74	24	11	..	165	...	.....	59	..	.....	6	15	...	2	....	10	1.5	....	..	.....	..	....	61	21	6	3	2	..	554	1.66
Total number in family	..	....	3.46	....	....	..	....	..	.....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	...	..	....	....	7.450	....	..	.....	..	....	....	...	....	..	3 42	....	.....	.....
																															35330	100%
																			Per cent.												
United States, white	146	370	379	175	77	..	1299	157	919	328	314	} 1827	114	245	...	295	52	1450	35.4	507	31	51 6	..	112	585	162	45	32	65	60	9156	42.21
United States, colored	11	122	70	9	6	..	215	12	75	89	83		2	16	....	16	11	122	2.	72	7	0.2	..	77	6	117	2	..	9	84	1862	8.58
British-American, white	3	....	122	31	..	..	16	2	61	146	2	} 3	14	1	266	14	....	....	1.	4	..	3.6	..	....	18	1	7	..	3	....	} 763	3.52
British-American, colored	...	..	10	8	....	..	....	....	.....	31	..		....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	..	.....	..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....		
Dutch	.....	2	2	2	....	..	4	2	.....	.	1	.....	...	....	....	...	....	....	.....	....	..	0.4	....	....	1	....	....	2	....	....	16	....
English	23	13	77	25	1	..	56	3	.....	96	10	89	54	13	....	26	3	166	9	743	6	8.9	..	1	117	6	8	..	11	5	883	4 07
French and Belgian	3	16	13	3	....	..	14	....	31	5	3	2	...	3	...	19	....	26	2.5	8	..	11.01	....	....	25	....	2	..	5	3	181	0 008
German	19	155	36	122	24	..	785	82	189	127	34	59	9	57	449	74	...	147	14.1	103	10	9 0	..	1	106	17	14	1	19	....	2589	11 94
Italian	4	8	54	21	..	..	9	..	9	4	2	5	....	1	....	2	3	19	1.2	6	1	0.1	..	..	2	....	1	..	5	....	161	0 007
Irish	52	66	387	58	10	..	847	52	312	102	31	275	63	36	65	129	30	1211	27 2	144	26	8.9	..	1	259	34	19	..	20	....	4239	19.54
Polish and Russian	...	8	38	124	1	..	32	1	23	14	2	11	....	4	....	20	....	64	1.7	18	..	0 11	..	..	16	....	2	..	2	3	384	1 77
Scandinavian	5	2	5	2	8	..	7	6	7	3	1	44	....	13	..	121	1	67	1.	6	2	4.4	..	....	29	....	....	..	1	1	332	1 53
Scotch and Welsh	...	4	18	6	1	..	20	3	15	29	4	.....	13	4	..	19	10	80	1.8	232	2	2.15	..	...	34	1	1	..	2	....	289	1.33
Other countries	21	4	47	6	37	..	182	6	39	5	3	57	6	18	243	4	8	61	3.1	13	7	5.7	..	....	66	2	3		2	2	842	3.9
																															21697	99 265
Can read and write	....	542	873	453	29	.	210	....	Most.	767	....	.....	196	273	....	....	114	....	88.5	...	.	.....	..	....	1078	229	85	.	85	76	5059	75.77
Can read, not write	...	102	79	3	1	..	...	....	.....	80	...	...	...	16	....	...	3	....	4 6	...	.	.....	..	....	61	18	1	..	1	22	390	5.84
Cannot read or write	....	128	235	140	3	..	168	..	.....	135	....	.....	79	23	....	..	1	...	6 9	....	..	... .	..	..	128	93	18	2	4	71	1228	18.39
																															6677	100%

[1] English and Welsh.

[2] Scotch only.

APPENDIX L.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

Baltimore.

Directory of Charitable and Beneficent Organizations, 1892, 16mo, 2d edition, 141 pp.; The Charities Record, a periodical succeeding the Confidential Circular; Annual Reports of the Charity Organization Society of Baltimore; Charities; The Relation of the State, the City, and the Individual to Modern Philanthropic Work. A. G. Warner, Ph D.; Report of a Conference on Charities held in Baltimore, April, 1887, published by the Baltimore Charity Organization Society, 1887, Charity Organization Society Pr.M.; The Needs of Self-supporting Women, Clare de Graffenried; Work among Workingwomen in Baltimore, H. B. Adams, Ph.D.; Philanthropy, Richard T. Ely; Relations of Private and Public to Organized Charity, W. F. Slocum; Notes on Literature of Charities, Professor Adams; Ashrott's Poor Relief in the United States (translation); Extracts from International Congress at Paris (translation); Education of the Friendly Visitor, Zilpha D. Smith; A Few Words to Fresh Visitors, Octavia Hill.

Boston.

Directory of Charitable Organizations, 1891, 12mo, 3d edition, 351 pp.; Annual Reports; Charity Organization, by Robert Treat Paine, 14 pp.; Essays by Octavia Hill, 34 pp.; Relation of Private Almsgivers to the Associated Charities, 1 p.; Work of Volunteer Visitors, by Robert Treat Paine, 19 pp.; An Appeal for Help and Workers; Hints to a Conference; Circular to Visitors concerning Drunkenness; The District Conference and its Executive Committee; Directions for the Work of an Agent; The Work of the Central Office; Sending New Applicants to the Overseers of the Poor; The Old Charity and the New, by H. L. Wayland, D.D., For Visitors of the Associated Charities; Laws applying to Tenements in the City of Boston; more than a score of papers now out of print.

Buffalo.

Handbook of Charity Organization, by Rev. S. H. Gurteen, 254 pp.; Hints and Suggestions to Visitors of the Poor, by the same; Phases of Charity, by the same; Provident Schemes, by the same; What is Charity Organization? by the same.

Cleveland.

The Journal and Bulletin, a weekly paper representing the benevolent organizations of the city.

Appendix L.— *Continued.*

Indianapolis.

Annual Year Book of Charities; Reprints of papers by Octavia Hill, S. H. Gurteen, Oscar C. McCulloch, C. S. Loch, and Francis Wayland.

New York.

New York Charities Directory of the Charitable and Beneficent Societies and Institutions of the City, 5th edition, 472 pp., 16mo, $1, to paid officers of churches and societies 50 cents; The Charities Review, a Journal of Practical Sociology, yearly subscription (8 numbers) $1; Work of Friendly Visitors, 1 p.; On District Conferences, by Mrs. James T. Fields, 4 pp.; Inaugural Paper of Organizing Secretary, 4 pp.; Cold Victuals, by Hon. Charles S. Fairchild, 2 pp.; How to repress Pauperism, by Robert Treat Paine, 16 pp.; Official *vs* Private Relief, a reprint from London Charity Organization Society Reporter, 2 pp.; Duties of Friendly Visitors, by Mrs. C. R. Lowell, 4 pp.; The Pauper Question, by D. O. Kellogg, 18 pp.; Profits and Possibilities of the Proper Organization of Charity, by Hon. A. S. Hewitt, 8 pp.; The Old Charity and the New, by Rev. H. L. Wayland, D.D., 4 pp.; Philanthropy, by Richard T. Ely, Ph.D., 8 pp.; The Charity Organization Idea, by Ansley Wilcox, 4 pp.; How to adapt Charity Organization Methods to Small Communities, by Mrs. Charles R. Lowell, 8 pp.; The Wastes of Charity, Rt Rev. Henry C. Potter, D.D., 8 pp.; Methods of Organization of Charity, by Alexander Johnston, 8 pp.; General Suggestions for the Treatment of Different Classes of Cases, 8 pp.; What We ask Co-operating Societies to do for Us, and What We are ready to do for Them, 2 pp.; Friendly Visiting, by Mrs. James J. Putnam, 8 pp.; The Savings Society, by Mrs. John H. Scribner, 8 pp.; The Church in Charity, by Alexander Johnston, 8 pp.; The Elberfeld System, a reprint from the Hospital, 8 pp.; Drunkards' Families, by Rev. W. F. Slocum, 6 pp.; Charity Organization and the Church, by Rev. Henry Van Dyke, D.D.; Report of Special Committee on Immigration, by Professor Richmond M. Smith, 10 pp.; The Friendly Side of Charity Organization, by Rev. E. Winchester Donald, D.D., 5 pp.; How Charity Organization helps the Pastors, by Rev. George Alexander, D.D., 4 pp.; The Personal Element in Charity, by Rev. Alexander Mackay-Smith, D.D., 9 pp.; The Need of Nerve in Charity, reprint from Charity Organization Reporter of London, 4 pp.; Economic and Moral Effects of Public Outdoor Relief, by Mrs. C. R. Lowell, 11 pp.; The Reform of Charity, by W. M. Salter, 8 pp., Handbook for Friendly Visitors, 88 pp., 16mo, paper 35 cents, cloth 50 cents.

Philadelphia.

Manual and Directory of Charities, 1879, 217 pp.; Monthly Register, large quarto, 8 pp., now in its fourteenth year; Organization of Charity in Philadelphia, by D. O. Kellogg, 16 pp.; Suggestions to Ward Visitors, by Mrs. J. P. Lesley, 24 pp.; The Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, by Rev. W. H. Hodge; a number of papers and essays now out of print.

Portland, Oregon.

Facts of Interest to You concerning the City Board of Charities.

San Francisco.

Monthly Circular of Information; various short papers.

Also, The Annual Reports of all the Charity Organization Societies in all the leading cities and towns named in Appendix A.

Appendix L.— *Concluded.*

The following, although not published by any of the Charity Organization Societies, are much used and circulated among them: —

Annual Reports of the National Conferences of Charities and Correction; Annual Reports of the State Boards of Charities of the several States; Charity Organization Review of the London C.O.S., monthly; Children of the Poor, by Jacob A. Riis (Scribner), 300 pp.; Dangerous Classes of New York, by Charles L. Brace, 1872, 468 pp.; Edward Denison, M.P., Letters, and Other Writings, by Sir Baldwyn Leighton, 12mo, 303 pp., paper (Scribner); How to help the Poor, by Mrs. James T. Fields, 125 pp. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.); How the Other Half lives, by Jacob A. Riis (Scribner), 304 pp.; Improved Dwellings for the Laboring Classes, by Alfred T. White, 45 pp.; The Jukes, by R. S. Dugdale, 120 pp. (Putnam); Lend-a-Hand, Monthly Magazine, by Rev. E. E. Hale, D.D., Boston; Outdoor Relief and Tramps, by Professor Francis Wayland (New Haven); Public Relief and Private Charity, by Mrs. C. R. Lowell, 111 pp. (Putnam); Report on Care of Dependent Children in New York, by Mrs. Charles R. Lowell, Commissioner New York State Board of Charities, 77 pp.; Report on Outdoor Relief, by the same, 19 pp.; Report on the Workhouse, New York City, by the same, 15 pp.

APPENDIX M.

NECROLOGICAL.

Boston.

Rt. Rev. Phillips Brooks, D.D., Mrs. James Lodge. Miss Mary Anne Wales. (Enriched from their estates) Sidney Bartlett, Moses Day, J. W. Estabrooks, Mrs. Catharine C. Humphreys, Mrs. Mary M. McGregor.

Brooklyn.

Charles Pratt, George B. Buzelle.

Indianapolis.

Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch.

New Haven.

Ex-Governor Hobart B. Bigelow, Thomas P. Gibbons, Mrs. Walter Osborn, Samuel G. Thorn, Samuel P. Wurts. (Enriched by their estates) Joshua Coit, Matthew G. Elliott.

New York.

Mrs. John Jacob Astor, Edgar S. Auchincloss, Jabez A. Bostwick, Benjamin G. Clark, Mrs. Cornelius Du Bois, Henry G. De Forest, Sidney Dillon, George B. Grinnell, Walter Hamlin, Rev. A. B. Hart, D.D., Robert B. Minturn, Cadwalader E. Ogden, Frederick Prime, Alfred Roosevelt, C. V. S. Roosevelt, Charles D. Scudder, M.D., John H. Sherwood, Lucius Tuckerman, S. O. Vander Poel, M.D., Julius Wadsworth, Robert Winthrop, Rev. Curtiss T. Woodruff. (Enriched from their estates or by memorial funds) Miss Leonora S. Bolles, William Smith Brown, Hector C. Havemeyer, Colles Johnston, Rev. C. W. Morrill, Mrs. Charles H. Rogers, Benjamin Stern, Adam W. Spies, Sidney Speyer, Mrs. Elijah Ward, Charles F. Woerishoffer.

Philadelphia.

H. Lenox Hodge, M.D.

Syracuse.

Mrs. Harriet A. Dunlap, Mrs. Sarah Judson, Rev. Ovid Miner.

IV.

Indoor and Outdoor Relief.

THE HISTORY OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INDOOR AND OUTDOOR RELIEF.

BY REV. C. G. TRUSDELL, D.D., CHAIRMAN.

It is understood that this paper is to give the History of Public and Private Indoor and Outdoor Relief, more especially for the last twenty years, with the improvements, if any, that have been adopted, and to what extent these improvements are due to the influence of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The members of this committee have promptly responded, and furnished valuable suggestions for the preparation of this paper. Several have prepared papers with reference to the work in their respective localities, worthy of separate presentation. Among these are Mrs. Barkley, New Orleans; Mr. McGonigle, Rochester, N.Y.; Mr. Raymond, Cleveland, Ohio; and Mr. Brackett, Minneapolis, Minn. Free use has been made of these in compiling this report.

History is supposed to deal mainly with facts, supported by dates and statistics. Mere statistics as to number, name, location, date of organization, special line of work, kind and measure of relief furnished, number of persons aided, nationality, condition in life,—married, widow, deserted, or single, male or female, number of children,—total amount disbursed, proportion of expense, etc., can never be correctly ascertained. A great array of figures might startle, and perhaps alarm, but would prove nothing, and teach nothing of value in this connection.

Public relief, indoor and outdoor, by counties and cities, is not noted for its accurate book-keeping, desire for inspection, or the completeness and the reliability of published reports. The reports of

State institutions are, no doubt, carefully and correctly prepared; but we have little to do with them in this discussion.

Private relief too often acts so literally upon the principle of not letting the left hand know what the right hand doeth that nobody is the wiser; and, alas! it is too frequently the case that nobody is the better for what it does.

The topic is a comprehensive one, covering the entire range of effort in all directions, and by every organization for the improvement of the condition of the poor, and the relief of distress. To the members of this Conference, and to all who have to any extent studied the problems involved, no explanation of terms is necessary; but, unfortunately, this is not a popular subject, and the general public know and care very little about it. The distinction between public and private relief, as these terms are commonly applied, is not very clear to the average reader. Still less does he understand exactly what is meant by *indoor* and *outdoor* relief.

Public in-door relief is that furnished by the authorities in State, county, city, or town. This embraces all institutions for the care and appropriate treatment of the unfortunate, dependent, and defective classes, such as the insane, blind, deaf, and dumb, and feeble-minded. This also includes all almshouses, asylums, homes, and hospitals founded and maintained by the State, county, city, or town. All these are embraced in the general term "public indoor relief." In addition to these, all counties, cities, and towns have some arrangement for meeting the necessities of the poor, who are not proper subjects for any institution.

This is generally under the control of county commissioners or supervisors, who appoint in every place a person known as poor-master or county agent, who is authorized to furnish certain needy persons, with such kind and measure of relief as, in his judgment, is necessary; while the recipient is permitted to remain at his own home. These supplies usually consist of certain rations of various kinds of food, fuel, and in some cases shoes and clothing. In special instances, small amounts of money, for rent or delicacies in case of sickness, are given. This is technically public outdoor relief; that is, it is outside of the poorhouse. Practically, it is indoor relief, but in the home, instead of in an institution.

It is next to impossible to give a correct history of public relief for the last twenty years, or for any particular period. Marked im-

provements have been made in public indoor relief during that period, particularly in hospitals and almshouses. Improvements in medical science, surgery, and sanitation, training-schools for nurses, and the frequent and thorough inspection of almshouses by State Boards have contributed to this result. Improvements in public outdoor relief, so far as known, have been only in those places where it has been abolished altogether. These instances are very few. Whether this Conference has been instrumental in securing this result in any case we are not able to say. There is probably no better field for the concentration of its efforts, though we are not sanguine of marked success. We have little hope of seeing that reform adopted to any great extent. Official position, patronage, and political influence are things too eagerly sought and dearly cherished to be voluntarily relinquished. Few county officials are philanthropists or reformers. Public sentiment is the only power that can correct abuses, and that is generally with the dominant party. The dominant party in cities is largely interested in the perpetuation and enlargement of all kinds of relief. It is the popular way of rewarding friends for political services.

Private charity or relief is a different matter altogether. By this we mean, not personal private charity, but societies and institutions organized for purposes of relief to certain classes, under certain circumstances supported by voluntary contributions. In this sense, all organizations that contemplate any kind or degree of charity work are relief societies, and are embraced under the general term of private relief. Whether they disburse directly through a paid agent from a central office or through authorized visitors, or procure help for special cases from private individuals, they are, to all intents and purposes, relief societies. Some of them do not like to be so classed, because the name has become somewhat odious on account of the questionable conduct of some members of the family; but that is no reason why they should deny the relationship.

Methods are various, and many differ in their views as to detail of administration; but the purpose is one,—to improve the condition of the poor. If the work of any society, calling itself charitable, is worth doing, the results of it will be seen in some measure of relief to the poor, and also in relief to the public from the evils and burdens of pauperism.

Any effort for the improvement of the condition of the poor recognizes two things: —

First, that multitudes of poor people are not paupers in the ordinary sense of that term; that certain classes in every community are always at a disadvantage, and have a hard struggle for existence under favorable circumstances; that there are many sick, aged, and infirm persons, and widows and deserted women with families, who always live from hand to mouth; that some of these, at least, are sober and industrious, and always make the best effort at self-support of which they are capable; that these often suffer to the last extreme in silence, and would rather die than stand in line with common paupers at the door of the poor-master or county agent, basket in hand, begging for a soup-bone or a loaf of bread.

Second, that relief to such, especially in any extraordinary emergency, should be administered promptly, delicately, and adequately, so as to save them from suffering, from downright pauperism, or from crime, and enable them to retain their self-respect and soon again become self-supporting.

Hence, for the relief of certain classes, institutions are organized, as hospitals, homes for the friendless, old people's homes, homes for incurables and convalescents, industrial schools for boys and girls, kindergartens and crèches for the care of the children of workingwomen, lodging-houses, wayfarers' inns, wood-yards, laundries, and free employment bureaus. The history of many of these institutions could be given; and improvements have certainly been made during the last twenty years, and doubtless credit should be given to this Conference for some of them.

We have received copies of Directories of Charities from Boston, New York, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Pittsburg, Indianapolis, Denver, and other cities. Chicago also publishes a Directory of Charities. From correspondence with many cities that do not publish directories, we think that they all have as many similar societies in proportion to population. We learn from these directories that in every city there are societies in nearly all churches and fraternities, among all nationalities and trades-unions, for the care of their own poor. The St. Vincent de Paul Society has a branch in every prominent parish. All these collect their funds from their own members, and seldom extend their work beyond their own people. In addition to this there are numerous aid societies for the

purpose of furnishing outdoor relief to certain classes. Boston and New York are noted for these. New Orleans and Denver each claims to be pre-eminently a city of charities.

Beyond all these special societies there is in nearly every city a general relief society, perhaps under some other name, for the purpose of furnishing outdoor relief to all really needy and worthy persons who are not otherwise provided for, without regard to religion, nationality, or color, supported entirely by voluntary contributions from the public, under no political or sectarian control, to which all applicants can be sent by any person, in the confidence that, whatever is right and proper to be done, will be done on shortest notice and in the best possible manner. This at once defines the character and limitations of general relief societies.

In every city there are numbers of families and of single women who, from no fault of their own, are rendered destitute through sickness and death in the family, severity of weather, little work and poor pay, distress for rent, and all sorts of emergencies that overtake poor people. Non-residents who fail to find their friends, or who lose their money and become stranded among strangers, need some society that can help those who are in trouble and have no claim upon church, fraternity, special society or institution.

The Union Benevolent Association of Philadelphia is probably among the first, if not the very first, general relief society organized in the United States "for the encouragement of industry, the suppression of pauperism, and the relief of suffering among the poor." This society was organized in 1831, and was incorporated in 1837. Judging from its Sixtieth Annual Report, it is still pursuing the same line of work as originally contemplated. We quote from the statement of the board of managers: —

> We still strive to be not so much a charity, as that word is generally understood, but a temporary assistance. To the sick and aged we are indeed a charity. Their needs are such that they cannot be measured by a single visit or by a single relief; but to most of those who call upon us we are simply a help. The world has gone wrong with them, work they cannot obtain, failure has stamped all their efforts, the fire has gone out on the hearth, and the larder is empty. By no fault of themselves, they are simply stranded. To these, in this dark hour, comes the Union Benevolent Association as a temporary assistance, to bridge over this period of calamity; and along with the alms of the association come the ministrations of our

lady visitors, who, with cheering words of hope and comfort, stimulate many to renewed efforts in the battle of life. With beneficial efforts, we try to be philanthropic, and, while relieving want, try to show the unfortunate the means of avoiding it. The Union Benevolent Association, by means of its complete corps of visitors and its co-operation with other societies, is able to discriminate between the professional beggar, the tramp or repeater, and the deserving poor; and thus our benefactions and charities are bestowed only upon those worthy to receive them.

The Indianapolis Benevolent Society was founded in 1836. The late Rev. Oscar McCulloch was accustomed to speak of it in connection with the Indianapolis charities as "the mother of us all." It has been in active operation over half a century. From late published reports it seems to be doing the same kind of work, in much the same manner as at first, so far as the means at its disposal will allow and the circumstances require.

The St. Louis Provident Association is among the oldest and most successful and useful of its kind. We made the acquaintance of this society in 1861–62. It was specially active during the late war. It was organized in 1860, and incorporated in the year 1863. Its constitution and rules of administration embrace the principles and methods of the most advanced charity organization. It supplies relief from its own resources, which are derived from voluntary contributions, and amount, from year to year, variously from fifteen to thirty thousand dollars per annum. In St. Louis there is no legal outdoor relief, and it is the chief relieving agency in the city. It maintains two depots and a corps of officers and paid visitors, adequate for thorough investigation and systematic work, official records of which, with complete classification, are carefully made and preserved. Its registration shows aid given to 50,162 families, composed of 187,120 persons, and 176,982 official visits made. In the supply of bread and fuel alone there have been distributed 1,801,315 bushels of coal and 6,000 cords of wood, and 4,431,154 pounds of bread, baked in its own ovens, and several millions pounds of flour and meal. The total amount expended in relief of the poor to date, May 1, 1893, has been $600,467.85.

Besides the office of superintendent, who has charge of the depots of supplies and conducts the work of investigation, there has been created, during the present year, the office of general manager, and

a central office established. This has been done with a view to more efficient administration in general, and particularly with reference to the introduction of repressive and preventive work in its various forms, thus realizing more fully what is the declared primary object of the association,— the elevation of the moral and physical condition of the indigent. During the past winter a labor test for able-bodied men has been established in the form of a wood-yard, which has served admirably its intended uses, and without financial loss. The introduction of provident savings this year is in contemplation, and, also, of a corps of friendly visitors. The association was originated by leading citizens, and in all its history has been under influential management, commanding public confidence and making it the chief channel of the benefactions of the charitable community. Its age and standing afford most favorable conditions of co-operation with other charitable societies, with which there exists friendly intercourse.

The New York Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor was organized in 1843, and incorporated in 1848. The second article in its act of incorporation states that "the particular business and objects of this association shall be the elevation of the physical and moral condition of the indigent, and, so far as compatible with these objects, the relief of the necessitous."

Article XI. of their by-laws declares: —

The visitors shall carefully investigate all cases referred to them before granting relief, ascertain the condition, habits of life, and means of subsistence of the applicant, and extend to all such kind service, counsel, and assistance as a discriminating and judicious regard for their present and permanent welfare requires; and, in case of sickness, it will be their duty to inquire whether there is any medical or other attendance needed, whether relief is afforded by any religious or charitable society, to provide themselves with information respecting the nearest dispensary, and, in all cases where practicable, to refer applicants for aid to appropriate existing societies. When no other assistance is provided or available, they shall draw from the resources of this association.

From Article XIII.: —

It shall be the duty of members of this association to endeavor in all suitable ways to give practical effect to its principles, especially to discountenance indiscriminate almsgiving and street-begging, to

provide themselves with tickets of reference, and, instead of giving aid to unknown applicants whose case they cannot themselves investigate, to refer such applicants to the visitor of the section in which the applicant lives, in order that such case may be properly inquired into, and, if deserving, relieved.

Rev. H. W. Bellows, D.D., said of this society, at its eleventh annual meeting in 1854: —

It is a profoundly planned, carefully adjusted, skilfully managed institution, aiming at the detection and extinction of vicious pauperism, and the relief of providential and honest poverty. Its purpose is to enable our citizens, through experienced almoners, to meet the claims of humanity toward the poor without creating or encouraging a dependent class. None but those earnestly studious of the great science of charity correctly appreciate the difficulties of the subject.

Probably nine-tenths of all the well-intended private (personal) charity of the city disbursed to beggars of all descriptions (including agents for alleged benevolent societies) was worse than wasted. It afforded a premium on idleness and vice. One-half of the sum bestowed on charity in this city would, if dispensed through this society, go far to meet every proper claim of want, and tend annually to diminish the aggregate of crime, sickness, and poverty.

The New York Directory of Charities, published in 1892, says of this society: —

It is a society devoted to the interests of the poor and working classes, the judicious relief of their necessities and the sanitary improvement of their homes, without regard to race, color, or nationality. Its design is the elevation of the moral and physical condition of the indigent, and, so far as is compatible with this, their temporary relief. It conducts six departments,— registration, relief, sanitary, sewing, fresh air, and public baths. Relief is granted in provisions, food, clothing, blankets, medicines, sick-room food, fresh-air excursions, sewing, bath tickets, wood-yard work, and other employment. During the summer ocean parties, comprising from five hundred to one thousand dwellers in the overcrowded tenement houses in New York City, are taken by water twice a week to an adjacent watering-place, where lunch and bathing privileges are provided. Whole families are accommodated. The number thus aided last summer was 17,518 persons. Total number of last year's beneficiaries, 37,626; visits made, 25,302; amount expended, about $40,000. It is controlled by a board of managers and an executive committee, and is supported by voluntary contribution.

The city of Brooklyn has a society of the same name, and it is doing substantially the same kind of work. Some years ago we learned that in the city of Brooklyn outdoor relief had grown to such frightful proportions, and had become such a manifest fraud and nuisance, that an indignant public rose in its majesty and compelled the abandonment of the system altogether. Amazing results were said to have followed immediately. As if by magic, pauperism at once disappeared. There was no longer any demand for relief, those who had been accustomed to depend upon it became suddenly self-supporting, beggars fled the city, the almshouse was depopulated. Some of these statements seemed not improbable, as New York and Jersey City were so near that, if expelled from one place, it was very easy to flee to another. How surrounding cities were affected we have not learned. That it was only public official outdoor relief that was abolished, the opponents of all forms of relief, public and private, did not tell us; and we were left to wonder if suffering among the poor could be abolished by proclamation. On a visit to the city of Brooklyn a few years after this marvellous reformation, we were surprised to learn from the officers of the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor and from other private charities that they were pressed to their utmost ability to relieve distress.

The Boston Provident Association was organized in 1851, and incorporated in 1854. Temporary aid in food, fuel, shoes, clothing, bedding, furniture, and money, is given at the office or by the volunteer visitor of each section at the homes of the poor. Rent is paid only in advance to save a family from being ejected. Transportation is sometimes paid. The association seeks to suppress street-begging and to place all dependent persons among the beneficiaries of such special charities as are designed for them. The latest edition of the Directory of Boston Charities, published in 1891, gives substantially the same account of this society.

The Chicago Relief and Aid Society was incorporated in 1857. In 1867 several similar societies were consolidated with it. The general objects and methods of work of the Chicago Relief and Aid Society are much the same as those already noticed. It has a central office in the business portion of the city at 51 and 53 La Salle Street, open from 8 A.M. to 5 P.M. from November 1 to May 1, and from 9 A.M. to 12 M. from May 1 to November 1. It also

has six district offices at remote parts of the city, open only in the winter.

In addition to general relief work it owns two hundred and fourteen beds in the different private hospitals in the city, and has large vested rights in the Home for the Friendless and the Old People's Home. It operates a wood-yard, wayfarers' lodge, and free employment bureau. It furnishes interment in any cemetery about the city in cases of death in families on its books or of persons sent by it to hospitals. It aims to do whatever seems proper and necessary in any case, and to meet any emergency that cannot be otherwise provided for.

So far as can be ascertained, all private relief societies are the outgrowth of circumstances in their respective locality, and all are conducted on much the same general principles.

Many wise and good people hold very different views in regard to some features of this work. Not a few complain that the relief societies are too particular and too economical; that they ought not to take sufficient time or to be over-particular in investigating; that every applicant should be helped without much regard to circumstances, antecedents, or results. Some would abolish all relief, and practically apply the Darwinian theory of the "survival of the fittest"; or, in other words, if they cannot live without help, let them die. Others, again, think that they have found a substitute in friendly sympathy or in good advice. The "not alms, but a friend," theory may do for those who can get along without either; but it is not enough to say to the shivering, starving, despondent children of misfortune, "Be thou fed and clothed and sheltered," and give them not the wherewithal to meet these wants. Those who have had much experience in such matters, or who know much of the general circumstances of the poor in cities, will not undertake to place everybody in comfortable circumstances on the one hand, or close their eyes and hands and hearts against the actual suffering that exists all about us, and which gives little promise of ever being less. Sympathy and good advice are very well in their way, but it often happens that distressed people have once been well-to-do. Some have even been prominent in charity work in their day, and are able to give instruction to charity workers. Bible-readers and missionaries are generally welcome in the homes of the poor, but it helps their work amazingly to introduce their religious exercises with a

basket of provisions or a receipt from the landlord for a month's rent.

Theorize as we may, suffering people will seek relief; and, if it is not to be had in one way, they will resort to another. Men out of work in winter, or unable to work by reason of infirmity, and widows with families, will not see their loved ones starving and freezing without making desperate efforts for their relief.

Charity has a twofold character. It is the practical expression of sympathy with the afflicted, and the price that society pays for its own safety.

Of course, indiscriminate giving to beggars and strangers is always unqualifiedly pernicious. All applicants on the street, at private homes, or in business places should be referred to some society that will thoroughly and promptly investigate, and do, without delay, what is necessary, and report to the person sending them. In order to do this, all societies, so far as known, gladly supply the public with cards for this purpose, and urge all to whom appeal is made to make free use of them. The fact is that very few beggars go upon the street until they have become known to every charitable society. Not one in a dozen of those to whom such cards are given ever present them at the office whence they are issued.

The greatest obstacle in the suppression of pauperism is the foolish practice of giving to strangers, and one of the greatest embarrassments in the prudent administration of relief is the persistent pressure of influential people in behalf of those of whom they know little or nothing. Duplication, or overlapping of relief, is not so frequent or serious as many suppose; and the possibility of it is no argument against wisely administered relief. Some cases have been cited where unscrupulous persons have succeeded in imposing upon societies. These cases may be one in a thousand or in a hundred. They only show that in each particular case the impostor was sharper than the agent. Any society or individual that assumes that a large portion of applicants are frauds may be valuable to the detective department of police, but is of little value in charity work. It takes little care and investigation to detect and resist the unworthy. Any person experienced in dealing with that class can almost instinctively tell before the applicant is half through with his story whether he is telling the truth or not.

Societies in constant correspondence with each other can very

easily ascertain if more than one is helping the same case. There are, no doubt, some shrewd professionals who would deceive the very elect. No line of business is proof against these. Bankers and merchants are sometimes deceived, but the percentage is comparatively small. The press is not easily imposed upon; but in its readiness to espouse the cause of the poor it is sometimes misled by fictitious tales of suffering, and paints the case in such glowing colors that scores of charitable ladies and gentlemen hasten to the address given with supplies of provisions, clothing, bedding, and fuel sufficient to exempt the family from work all winter, and money enough to enable the man of the house to drink the health of his benefactors in his favorite beverage for a month.

We summarize the whole subject in a few brief propositions, to wit: —

Public indoor relief embraces all State, county, and city institutions founded and controlled by the public authorities. These are supported by taxation, and are subject to inspection by State Boards of Charity where such boards exist.

Public outdoor relief is administered by county and city authorities for the support of paupers. In most cases, it is a nuisance, and ought to be abolished altogether.

Private indoor relief is by institutions founded for the care of special classes, and is supported by private contributions.

Private outdoor relief is furnished by private societies organized and controlled by independent boards of managers or directors, and supported by voluntary contributions. The objects of these are the suppression of pauperism and the temporary relief of the poor who are not paupers, and for whom no other provision is made.

This embraces all kinds of friendly offices as well as the giving of necessary aid in emergencies. It discourages indiscriminate almsgiving to beggars and strangers. It thoroughly and promptly investigates all applicants for relief. It has a system of registration for the preservation of information acquired. It practises co-operation with all existing charitable societies, and seeks by interchange of courtesies to prevent duplication, or overlapping of relief. The history of these societies proves that, when properly managed, they do not tend to the increase of pauperism, but rather to the reduction of it to a minimum, and to cause mendicancy to disappear.

V.

Immigration.

HISTORY OF IMMIGRATION.

BY CHARLES S. HOYT, M.D., CHAIRMAN.

The Standing Committee on Immigration appointed by the last Conference has held no meeting during the year, the members being so widely separated that it was found impracticable to call them together. Mr. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, who went abroad in November last, and who has not yet returned, was invited to make and furnish notes as to the character of such European immigrants to the United States as might fall under his observation in different European countries; and Mr. Wendte, of California, who expressed the opinion that the subject of Chinese immigration to this country should be considered by the committee, was requested to present his views upon this special subject, as representing a State largely interested in the question. No communications have as yet been received, either from Mr. Sanborn or Mr. Wendte, in relation to these subjects; but it is hoped that, if their reports come to hand in time, they may be incorporated and printed in the Proceedings of the Conference. The other members of the committee have been communicated with; but no replies have been received from any of them, except Mr. Ehrich, of Colorado, and he offered no suggestions in regard to the matter. This report, which aims only to present an historical view of the various questions that have affected immigration to the United States, and the legislation upon the subject, is, therefore, submitted by the chairman of the committee, who alone is responsible for its preparation and the accuracy of its statements.

Statistics respecting Immigration.

The statistical exhibits respecting immigration to the United States, appended to this report, are based upon the official reports of the Secretary of the Treasury upon the subject, issued by authority, and the information prepared for the Special Committee on Immigration of the Fiftieth Congress, published as an official document. These statistics extend from 1820 to 1892, inclusive, prior to which there are little or no official data respecting immigration, our information upon the subject being mainly derived from the estimates of statistical writers of that period. These writers generally agree in estimating the number of immigrants arriving in the United States from the close of the Revolutionary War to 1820 to have been 250,000.

The official reports show a lack of uniformity in the classification of alien passengers arriving in the United States. Prior to 1856 the official statistics made no distinction between alien passengers intending to make their permanent residence in this country and those who were merely transient alien passengers or sojourners. From 1856 to 1868 the statistics distinguish the total number of immigrants proper from the transient alien passengers, but since 1868 the number of immigrants of each nationality is annually shown separately. No attempt was made to ascertain the number of immigrants crossing the frontier into the United States, either from Mexico or Canada, until 1860. The collectors of customs at Detroit and Port Huron made returns to the Secretary of the Treasury of immigrants arriving at those ports from and through Canada by railway trains and ferries from that date to June 30, 1885, when, owing to their unreliability, the returns were discontinued. No statistics of immigrants arriving by land-carriage from Mexico have ever been collected; nor have any arrivals from Asia, Africa, and Central and South America been reported since 1888. With these explanations the statistical charts hereto appended, based upon the official returns respecting immigration before referred to, are submitted.

Chart No. 1 shows the number of immigrants arriving by decades, in the United States from 1820 to 1890. By this chart it will be seen that the number of immigrants thus arriving was 14,935,258,

of whom 5,246,613, or over one-third, arrived during the decade from 1880 to 1890. If we add to these 250,000 arriving, according to estimates, prior to 1820, 543,985, the actual arrivals in 1891, and 579,663, the actual arrivals in 1892, it gives a total of 16,308,906 immigrants arriving in the United States from the close of the Revolutionary War to 1892, equalling in number about one-fourth of the present population of the country.

Chart No. 2 shows the number of immigrants arriving annually in the United States from 1873 to 1892, inclusive. From this chart it will be seen that the number of such arrivals during this period was 8,408,955, or 1,204,350 more than all the arrivals from the close of the Revolutionary War to 1870. The greatest number of yearly arrivals during this period, and the greatest number also in any one year in the history of immigration to the country, was in 1882, when they reached 730,349. The year 1892 opened with prospects of a greater number of arrivals than in 1882, but closed with only 579,663, the inflow being checked by the prevalence of epidemic cholera, which appeared both abroad and in this country about the middle of the year. The yearly average number of arrivals during the past twenty years was 420,448, and the lowest number in one year 130,502, which occurred in 1877. Of the 8,408,955 immigrants arriving in the United States from 1873 to 1892 inclusive, the records show that 5,881,413, or nearly 70 per cent., landed at the port of New York, and 2,527,542 at various other United States ports. If we apply this ratio to the 16,308,906 immigrants arriving in the country since the Revolutionary War, it would give a total landing in New York of 11,416,234; at other federal ports, 4,892,672.

Chart No. 3 shows the nationality of immigrants landing in the United States each year from 1873 to 1892. From this chart it will be seen that, while the immigration from Great Britain, Germany, and many other European countries has undergone but little change for the past twenty years as compared with previous years, there has been a very large increase from certain other European countries, noticeably Austria-Hungary, Russia, and Italy, from which but few immigrants had previously reached the United States. The number of immigrants from Austria-Hungary to this country in 1873 was only 7,835; and it did not exceed this number until 1880, when it reached 24,920. Since then the arrivals have exceeded this number

each year, reaching 71,042 in 1891, and 76,937 in 1892. In 1873 Russia furnished only 6,466 immigrants to the United States, with but slight yearly increase thereafter until 1881, when the number was 14,796. The arrivals since then, with the exception of 1883, have greatly exceeded that number each year, reaching 74,923 in 1891, and 122,047 in 1892. From Italy there came only 7,507 immigrants to this country in 1873; and the arrivals did not much exceed that number until 1880, when they rose to 12,781. The arrivals each year since have considerably exceeded that number, reaching 46,256 in 1887, and exceeding that number each year since, except in 1889, when they fell off to 25,307. The number of such arrivals in 1891 was 76,055, and in 1892, 61,631. The immigration from Asia, which averaged annually over 16,000 from 1873 to and including 1882, fell off to 542 in 1883; and the yearly arrivals since then have only twice exceeded that number. This immigration came almost wholly from China; and its stoppage is due to the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882, without which the incoming from this source would doubtless have steadily and largely increased.

Chart No. 4 shows the comparative nationality of 8,408,955 immigrants, the whole number arriving in the United States from 1873 to 1892, inclusive. By this chart it will be seen that the order of precedence as to numbers from European countries which furnish most of the immigrants to the United States is as follows, with the numbers furnished respectively by each, namely: Germany, 2,152,616; Ireland, 1,072,772; England, 1,044,904; Austria-Hungry, 576,611; Sweden, 571,755; Russia, 526,466; Italy, 499,297; Norway, 279,344; Scotland, 233,930; Denmark, 136,987; Switzerland, 119,569; France, 116,315; Holland, 79,489; Belgium, 33,857; Wales, 18,663; other European countries, 40,004. Asia furnished 166,317; Africa, 464; British North America, 647,220; Central and South America, 2,960; all other countries, 88,415.

Chart No. 5 shows the comparative nationality of 3,610,401 immigrants, the whole number arriving in the United States from 1873 to 1882, inclusive. The order of precedence as to numbers coming from European countries to the United States during this period is as follows: from Germany, 976,743; from Ireland, 457,245; from England, 454,453; from Sweden, 217,559; from Norway, 131,439; from Austria-Hungary, 130,122; from Italy, 100,109; from Scotland, 94,648; from Russia, 86,556; from France, 64,957; from

Denmark, 50,193; from Switzerland, 48,334; from Holland, 32,800; from Belgium, 9,214; from Wales, 7,633; from other European countries, 10,163. The number from Asia was 162,742; from Africa, 263; from British North America, 532,090; from Central and South America, 1,336; from all other countries, 41,802.

Chart No. 6 shows the comparative nationality of 4,798,554 immigrants, the whole number arriving in the United States from 1883 to 1892, inclusive, namely: from Germany, 1,176,873; from Ireland 615,527; from England, 590,451; from Austria-Hungary, 446,489; from Russia, 439,910; from Italy, 399,188; from Sweden, 354,196; from Norway, 147,905; from Scotland, 139,282; from Denmark, 86,794; from Switzerland, 71,235; from France, 51,358; from Holland, 46,689; from Belgium, 24,643; from Wales, 11,030; from other European countries, 29,841. The other arrivals were as follows: from Asia, 3,575; from Africa, 201; from British North America, 115,130; from Central and South America, 1,624; from all other countries, 46,613.

Local Supervision of Immigration.

In the early history of the country the supervision and care of immigrants to the United States were left wholly to the local authorities of the ports at which they were landed, the federal government interfering only in so far as to protect them in their ocean transit. The expenses of such landing and care of immigrants at first were met by the local authorities of the various ports interested; and, in most instances, the money raised for these purposes was levied and collected in connection with the "poor fund" of the locality. To relieve the local authorities of these expenses, and to provide more effectually for the protection, treatment, and care of such immigrants as might become sick or otherwise disabled during the voyage, and to protect themselves from being flooded with alien paupers, lunatics, and criminals, New York, Massachusetts, and other States having ports of entry, in time established commissions or boards of emigration, and through such commissions, boards, or local authorities, imposed and collected a capitation tax on all immigrants landing at their ports sufficient for these purposes, varying in different localities from one dollar to three dollars per person. New York expended large sums, derived from this fund, in the

erection of hospitals, asylums, and other buildings, which, during this period, were utilized for the relief and care of sick and otherwise disabled immigrants, but which are no longer used for these purposes.

Under the decision of the United States Supreme Court in 1875 the authority thus exercised by the States in imposing a capitation tax on immigrants was declared unconstitutional; and the expenses in connection with immigration from that time until 1882 again fell wholly upon the States or the localities where the immigrants were landed, being met by direct State or local taxation. During this period the New York legislature appropriated, from time to time, $1,140,455.19 to meet the expenses of the Commissioners of Emigration in the landing and care of immigrants at the port of New York; and other States and localities where immigrants landed were called upon to make annual appropriations for the same purposes. It is estimated that a total of over $1,500,000 was appropriated and expended by the various States and localities interested for the landing, supervision, protection, and care of immigrants from 1875 to 1882.

The decision of the United States Supreme Court, which thus threw upon the States the burden of supervising the landing and care of sick and disabled immigrants, without authority to impose a capitation tax to meet the expenses, and without power to regulate or restrict immigration, attracted wide attention throughout the country, especially in New York, Massachusetts, and other seaboard States, upon which most of this burden fell. In no State did this matter excite more interest than in New York, through whose port, as has been shown, fully seventy per cent. of all the immigrants arriving in the United States by ocean routes were landed, in addition to which large numbers annually entered the State from Canada, along its extended and unprotected northern border. The evils of this heavy and almost unrestricted immigration to New York soon became apparent in the rapid increase in the number of alien paupers, insane and otherwise disabled and helpless persons, thrown upon its bounties, and the consequent increase of its expenditures and the expenditures of its cities and counties therefor, much of which increase, it was believed, was due to the improper and systematic shipment of these classes to this country from their various European homes.

The evils of such shipments, which were frequently pointed out by the New York State Board of Charities in its reports to the legislature, assumed such proportions in 1879 that the board, at its stated meeting held at Saratoga, September 9 and 10 of that year, resolved to call the attention of Congress to the matter, and urge the adoption of federal measures to protect the State and country against these shipments. Accordingly, a circular letter was prepared by the board upon the subject, carefully setting forth these evils, a copy of which letter was sent to each senator and representative in Congress from New York, and to the Department of State at Washington. The State Boards of Charities, in which States such boards then existed, were also communicated with upon the subject, and their co-operation urged. These boards, including those of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, took prompt action in the matter, bringing the subject to the attention of the delegates in Congress from their respective States, and to the Department of State. The State Conventions of County Superintendents of the Poor of New York, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and other States, whose members were brought into sharp contact with recently landed pauper and disabled immigrants, also took action looking to the regulation and restriction of immigration, by calling the attention of the delegations in Congress from their respective States to the matter, and urging federal legislation upon the subject. It is believed that this concerted action of the several State Boards of Charities, and other organizations interested, incited by the New York State Board, in thus calling the attention of the Congress of 1880 to the evils of the shipment of pauper, lunatic, and other disabled European aliens to the United States, greatly stimulated and hastened federal legislation to regulate immigration, a bill for which was introduced into the Congress of that year, and perfected and passed by the Congress of 1882.

The subject of immigration was discussed in the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Detroit in 1875, and in subsequent Conferences; but no action looking to federal restrictive measures was taken by the Conference until 1880, when at Cleveland it appointed a standing committee on immigration. This committee reported to the Conference of 1881, at Boston, that a bill prepared under its counsel and advice had been introduced into

Congress to regulate immigration; but, the session being a short one, it failed to pass. The secretaries of the Conference were directed to print and furnish a copy of the report of the committee to each senator and representative in Congress, and the several State Boards of Charities throughout the country were requested to use their personal and official influence in their respective States, also, to secure the attention of Congress to the question. From this time the Conference each year has provided for a standing committee on immigration; and the reports of these committees, from time to time, in harmony with the action of the State Boards of Charities, have contributed largely in promoting favorable federal legislation upon the subject.

Removal of Alien Paupers by States.

The failure of Congress to take action to regulate immigration, and the pressure upon the charitable institutions of New York in providing for the support and care of lunatic and otherwise disabled and helpless alien paupers, in no wise legitimate objects of its bounties, induced the New York State Board of Charities, in 1880, to call the attention of the legislature to the subject in its annual report of that year, and to ask authority and an appropriation to return these helpless classes to their European homes, from which it was clearly established many of them had been sent to this country, in order thereby to avoid the burden and expense of their support. The matter received favorable consideration from the legislature, and the board was authorized to cause the removal to the countries whence they came of any crippled, blind, lunatic, or other infirm alien paupers sent to this country by cities or towns in the various countries of Europe, or by societies, relatives, or friends, who might be found in any poorhouse, almshouse, or other institution of charity in the State; and an adequate appropriation was made for this purpose. The board immediately entered upon this work, and since then to Sept. 30, 1892, it has removed 1,879 representatives of these classes to their European homes, as follows: to England, 445; to Ireland, 404; to Scotland, 78; to Germany, 526; to Norway, 13; to Sweden, 50; to Denmark, 23; to Holland, 13; to Belgium, 1; to France, 34; to Switzerland, 68; to Italy, 91; to Austria-Hungary, 95; to Russia, 38. The whole expenditure for

these removals has been $40,919.40; the expense per person, $21.78.

These removals, it is reported by the New York State Board of Charities, have effected a great saving to the State, and have been made without any well-founded grounds of complaint from the countries to which the persons were sent. If the experience of New York is of any value in this respect, the method is well worth the careful consideration of other States, many of which must, in the nature of things, be more or less burdened with these classes. Some of the States, it is understood, do make such removals, but to what extent is not fully known. If all the States thus burdened with these classes would make provision for such removals, it would result, it is believed, in economy, and at the same time tend to deter their shipment to this country.

Federal Supervision of Immigration.

The act of Congress regulating immigration, passed Aug. 3, 1882, provided for a tax of fifty cents on all foreign passengers, to be levied and paid to the collector of the port at which they were landed, by the vessels bringing them to the United States. The act authorized the Secretary of the Treasury to enter into contract with such board, commission, or officer as might be designated by the governor of any State to take charge of the local affairs of immigration at the ports of such State, and to provide for the support and relief of such immigrants landing therein as might fall into distress or need public aid, to be reimbursed by the collector of the port out of the fund derived from such tax. It was made the duty of such board, commission, or officer to examine and inquire into the condition of all passengers arriving at such ports, and if, on such examination and inquiry, there should be found any convict, lunatic, idiot, or any person unable to care for himself or herself, and who would likely become a public charge, the same should be reported in writing to the collector of such port, and such person should not be permitted to land, and the expense of his or her return should be borne by the vessel in which he or she came. Under this act the Secretary of the Treasury, soon after its passage, entered into contract with the Commissioners of Emigration of New York, with the Boards of Charities of Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, and with

various local boards, commissions, and officers of other States; and from that time until the passage of the act of March 3, 1891, the examinations, inquiries, landing, relief, and care of all immigrants arriving in the United States devolved upon such local officers, commissions, and boards.

It was the evident intention of Congress by this act to assume the entire control and responsibility in respect to immigration, and to secure ample and proper protection to immigrants arriving at our shores, and at the same time guard against the influx to this country of convicts, lunatic and otherwise infirm and chronic alien paupers, in the event of attempts to land them at our ports. The law as it was executed, however, formed little or no barrier against the shipment of these classes to this country; and there was no remedy after they had passed the port at which they were landed. The expenditure of a small sum for passage to any interior point generally insured the delivery of the person to the place of destination; and, though he were insane or otherwise incapable of self-support, there was no provision in the act for his return, and he fell upon the locality where he might be as a public charge through life. The statistics of the prisons, penitentiaries, poorhouses, asylums, and other institutions of this country show that there were proportionately more of the criminal, insane, pauper, and helpless alien classes in them in the few years immediately following 1882 than in former years, and that the evils from these sources were, apparently, constantly and heavily increasing.

These evils were believed to be due largely to defects in the federal law, in that its execution depended entirely upon local officers, likely to be influenced, more or less, by local considerations; by the generally hurried and superficial examination of immigrants at the time of their landing; by the absence of any reciprocal action between the officers of the various ports; and also by the failure of the statute to prescribe any penalty for its violation. The New York State Board of Charities in its annual reports, and the Standing Committee on Immigration of this Conference, from time to time, pointed out these evils, and recommended that the execution of the law be placed in the hands of the federal officers, untrammelled by local influences, and free to act in the interest of the entire country; that the examinations be more thorough and vigilant, and that the capacity of each immigrant for self-support be conclusively

established before being permitted to land; that the procedure at the various ports, so far as practicable, be uniform and reciprocal; that violations of the statute in bringing criminals, insane, and other helpless persons to this country should subject the owners of the vessels implicated to a fine in each case, in the nature of a libel on the vessel, to be enforced in the proper courts. It was also further recommended to secure additional protection, that all immigrants be examined by United States consuls and consular agents abroad before embarkation, and that certificates be issued by these officers that the intended immigrants were not criminals, lunatics, or otherwise chronically disabled, and that such certificates be transmitted to the authorities of the ports at which they were to land.

These repeated recommendations by the New York State Board of Charities and the Standing Committee on Immigration of this Conference, which were forcibly brought to the attention of Congress, and generally supported by the press, undoubtedly had strong bearing in securing the passage of the act of 1891, placing the whole subject of immigration and the importation of alien contract laborers under the control of federal officers appointed for the purpose, and largely increasing the number of excluded classes.

Federal Immigration Act of 1891.

The act of Congress of March 3, 1891, created and established the office of Superintendent of Immigration, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and placed such officer under the control and supervision of the Department of the Treasury, with headquarters in Washington. The contract with the New York Commissioners of Emigration was terminated by the Secretary of the Treasury April 19, 1890, and a United States commissioner was placed in charge of immigration at the port of New York. Since then such commissioners and inspectors have been placed in charge of the other United States ports, with all the duties and powers conferred by the act of 1882 upon State commissions, boards, and other officers, acting under contract with the Secretary of the Treasury, so that now the landing, supervision, and care of immigrants is entirely in the hands of federal officers.

The excluded classes under this act were idiots, insane persons,

paupers, or persons likely to become a public charge, persons suffering from loathsome or dangerous contagious diseases, persons who might have been convicted of a felony or other infamous crime or misdemeanor involving moral turpitude, polygamists, and also any person whose ticket or passage had been paid for with the money of another, or who was assisted by others to come, unless satisfactorily shown, on special inquiry, that such person did not belong to any of the excluded classes, or to the class of contract laborers excluded by the act of 1885. The act made it the duty of the commanding officer and agents of the steam or sailing vessels by which they came to report the name, nationality, last residence and destination of any such alien, before landing, to the proper inspecting officer, the landing being held incomplete pending any investigation. It further provided for the punishment or conviction of any person violating its provisions by a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars, or by imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment, and invested the circuit and district courts of the United States with full and concurrent jurisdiction of all causes, civil and criminal, arising under any provisions of the act. It will thus be seen that the defect in the act of 1882, in the failure to provide adequate penalties for its violation, was fully remedied by the act of 1891.

Federal Immigration Act of 1893.

This act, entitled "An Act to facilitate the Enforcement of the Immigration and Contract Labor Laws of the United States," passed March 3, 1893, provides that, in addition to conforming to all present requirements of law, upon the arrival of any alien immigrants by water at any port within the United States, it shall be the duty of the master or commanding officer of the steamer or sailing vessel having said immigrants on board to deliver to the proper inspector of immigration at the port lists or manifests made at the time and place of embarkation of such alien immigrants on board such steamer or vessel, which list or manifest shall give as to each immigrant the full name, age, sex; whether married or single; the calling or occupation; whether able to read or write; the nationality; the last residence; the seaport for landing in the United States; the final destination, if any, beyond the seaport of

landing; whether having a ticket through to such final destination; whether the immigrant has paid his own passage or whether it has been paid by others or any corporation, society, municipality, or government; whether in possession of any money, and, if so, whether upwards of thirty dollars, and how much, if thirty dollars or less; whether going to join a relative, and, if so, what relative, and his name and address; whether ever before in the United States, and, if so, when and where; whether ever in prison or almshouse or supported by charity; whether a polygamist; whether under contract, express or implied, to perform labor in the United States; and what is the immigrant's condition of health, mentally and physically, and whether deformed or crippled, and, if so, from what cause. The act further provides that the immigrants shall be listed in convenient groups of not more than thirty names in any one list, and that each list or manifest shall be verified by the signature and the oath or affirmation of the master or commanding officer, taken before the United States consul or consular agent at the port of departure, before the sailing of the vessel, to the effect that he has made a personal examination of the passengers named therein, and that he has caused the surgeon of said vessel, sailing therewith, to make a physical examination of each of said passengers, and that, from his personal inspection and the report of said surgeon, he believes that no one of said passengers is an idiot or insane person, or a pauper, or likely to become a public charge, or suffering from a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease, or a person who has been convicted of a felony or other infamous crime or misdemeanor involving moral turpitude, or a polygamist, or under a contract or agreement, express or implied, to perform labor in the United States, and that, also, according to the best of his knowledge and belief, the information in said lists or manifests concerning each of said passengers named therein is correct and true. The surgeon of said vessel, sailing therewith, is required also to sign each of said lists or manifests before the departure of the vessel, and make oath or affirmation in like manner before said consul or consular agent, stating his professional experience and qualifications as a physician and surgeon, and that he has made a personal examination of each of the passengers named therein, and that said lists or manifests, according to the best of his knowledge and belief, are full, correct, and true in all particulars relative to the mental and physical con-

dition of said passengers. In case of the failure of the master or commanding officer of said vessel to deliver to the said inspector of immigration lists or manifests thus verified, containing the information required as to all alien immigrants on board, there shall be paid to the collector of customs, at the port of arrival, the sum of ten dollars for each immigrant qualified to enter the United States concerning whom such information is not contained in any such list or manifest, or said immigrant shall not be permitted so to enter the United States, but shall be returned, like other excluded persons. The act contains no general repealing clause; and all of the provisions of the acts of 1882 and 1891, in respect to the excluded classes, and for the prosecution and enforcement of penalties for their violation, and also in respect to their various other provisions, not inconsistent, remain, therefore, in full force.

The Secretary of the Treasury, under date of March 11, 1893, issued extended instructions to the collectors of customs and the inspectors of immigration at the various United States ports, for their guidance in the execution of the statutes in relation to the examination, landing, and disposition of immigrants at such ports, which instructions or regulations went into full effect May 3, 1893.

Foreign and Alien Contract Laborers.

The act of Congress of Feb. 26, 1885, made it unlawful for any person, company, partnership, or corporation to prepay the transportation or in any way encourage or assist the migration of any alien or aliens, any foreigner or foreigners, into the United States, its Territories, or the District of Columbia, under contract or agreement, parole or special, express or implied, made previous to the importation or immigration of such alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, to perform labor or service of any kind in the United States, its Territories, or the District of Columbia. It made it a misdemeanor, punishable by fine and imprisonment of the master of any vessel for knowingly bringing any such person or persons and landing them in the United States, and imposed a penalty of one thousand dollars upon the person, company, or corporation assisting or encouraging such importation, to be prosecuted for by the district attorney of the proper district, to be paid to the Treasury of the United States. The act did not apply to skilled laborers, in case

the labor could not otherwise be obtained, or to individuals assisting relatives or personal friends to migrate from any foreign country to the United States for the purpose of settlement. By an amendatory act of Congress, passed Feb. 23, 1887, the Secretary of the Treasury was charged with the duty of carrying out the provisions of the act, with power to enter into contract with State commissions, boards, or officers designated by the governor of any State for the purpose, in the same manner and upon like terms and conditions as contracted with such Commissions, boards, or officers for the execution of the act of 1882, to regulate immigration. The act of 1891 consolidated the various Congressional acts in relation to immigration and the importation of aliens under contract or agreement to perform labor; and the execution of the statutes, both in respect to immigration and the importation of alien contract laborers, was placed in the hands of federal officers, under direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, and has been so continued under the act of 1893.

The subject of the wholesale and almost unchallenged importation of alien laborers to this country, unskilled in all respects, even if not under contract to labor, is one of great public importance; and, obviously, it should receive in some respects more careful and considerate attention than heretofore by those charged with the enactment and execution of federal statutes relating to immigration. The skilled workmen of the various trades and mechanical and manufacturing occupations throughout the country are generally well organized and united in opposition to the importation of skilled foreign workmen likely to come into competition with them in their numerous vocations. These organizations, through their agents at home and abroad, keep the federal authorities constantly and well advised of intended shipments here of skilled foreign competitors; and the statutes against the incoming of such, and for their return to the countries from which they may be brought, appear, on the whole, to be fully enforced at the various United States ports, and thus afford the protection for which they were designed.

There is another and large class of our home laborers, however, unskilled in trades and special pursuits, which apparently is not properly protected against the competition of imported and other unskilled foreign laborers. Indeed, we open the doors as widely as possible to depress our unskilled home laborers by desperate compe-

tition from abroad. These home laborers, both native and adopted, belong mainly to our fixed population, many of them being the owners of moderate homes, having families to support and educate; and they therefore play an important part in the social and material interests of the country and in the defence and maintenance of the government. They are too wide-spread and diversified in their pursuits for defensive organization, like the skilled laborers, and consequently are brought into severe competition with the hosts of European laborers who annually flock to or are imported into this country without intention of permanent residence or citizenship or interest in our social or governmental affairs, and whose services are obtained at rates disastrous to our resident unskilled home workmen, the profits of which accrue mainly to contractors, padrones, and corporations. The strong, robust, industrious, and frugal of these imported and other alien unskilled laborers, when their work is completed, generally return to the countries whence they were brought or came, there to spend and enjoy the proceeds of their labor, and thus escape responsibility to the government and institutions of the country that had given them temporary protection and shelter; while the criminal, disabled, and indolent classes remain to burden our penal and charitable institutions through life or swell the ranks of mendicants, tramps, and vagrants, to infest and prey upon society. It is believed, therefore, that the existing federal statutes against the importation of alien contract laborers should be more rigidly and thoroughly enforced than heretofore in respect to the unskilled class, and that further legislation should be had to protect our unskilled resident home laborers against the severe and almost ruinous competition of unskilled transient foreign laborers. This could probably be best met by the imposition of a heavy capitation tax upon all alien immigrant passengers failing to furnish satisfactory evidence to the inspecting officers of the ports at which they sought to land that they came to the United States for the purpose of permanent residence or settlement, and not as transient passengers or mere sojourners. We wholly exclude Chinese laborers from landing in the country, mainly on the ground that they come here for temporary residence only, to compete for the time being with our permanent resident unskilled home laborers, and to return to their own country when their work shall be completed. There would seem to be no valid reason, therefore, why we should not greatly restrict or

entirely exclude, if need be, the incoming of other foreign temporary unskilled laborers, as well as those from China, when they come to us from any country in such numbers as to injure and distress by their competition our permanent resident population, native and adopted, dependent upon the income of their unskilled labor for the maintenance and support of themselves and families.

Conclusions.

From this examination of the federal statutes in relation to immigration, it would seem that they impose nearly all the restrictions that can well be enforced at the ports of debarkation against the introduction into this country of criminals, paupers, lunatics, and other disturbing and burdensome classes from foreign countries, and that any further legislation to this end should be directed toward a more thorough and systematic examination than at present provided for of all intending immigrants before their embarkation by United States consuls and consular agents, to be fully empowered for the purpose. The examination and listing of immigrants at the port of their departure by the master or commanding officer of the steamer or vessel by which they are to take passage to this country, as provided by the act of 1893, will, doubtless, prove beneficial by deterring some of the undesirable classes from seeking passage, which would otherwise make the attempt, and probably in most instances succeed. The master or commanding officer of such steamer or vessel, aided by the examinations of the surgeon in charge, might be able to detect and exclude the extreme idiot and violent lunatic, the crippled and deformed, and those suffering from loathsome or dangerous contagious diseases; but it is difficult to see how, with the pressing duties incident to the generally hurried departure, he can detect the feeble-minded, mild lunatic, felon, pauper, polygamist, misdemeanant, or contract laborer, and thus prevent their securing passage. The only guide for the decision of such master or commanding officer in respect to the latter classes would be the unsupported statements of the persons seeking passage, and these would not be likely in their desire to leave the country to disclose facts in respect to themselves tending to defeat their object and purposes.

It is believed, therefore, as a further protection against undesirable immigrants, as recommended by the committee of the last Conference, that we should require all persons intending to immigrate to this country to procure from some local court or officer of public record before leaving their homes a certificate of their proper character, duly attested by the official seal of such court or officer, setting forth that the intended immigrant is a reputable and proper person and does not belong to any of the classes excluded by the statutes of the United States, which certificate duly approved, after full examination by the United States consul or consular agent of the port from which he intends to leave, should authorize the master or commanding officer of any steamer or vessel sailing from such port to allow him to embark, and to bring him to the United States, delivering the certificate thus provided for to the inspecting officer of the port at which he may desire to land, subject to examination there, as now provided for by statute. In case the United States consul or consular agent at any foreign port should find it impossible properly to examine and certify, with the force at his command, all of the persons desiring to immigrate through such port, he should be authorized to employ such medical and other expert aid as from time to time may seem necessary for the proper discharge of this duty. It has been suggested from some sources that such certificates, with consular approval, should be procured at least thirty days before embarkation of the intended immigrant, and also that an educational qualification should be required of all persons desiring to immigrate to this country. These and many other questions affecting immigration have frequently been discussed in these Conferences, and their great and growing importance make them proper questions for further discussion by the Conference.

Chart No. 1.

SHOWING THE NUMBER OF IMMIGRANTS ARRIVING, BY DECADES, IN THE UNITED STATES FROM 1820 TO 1890.

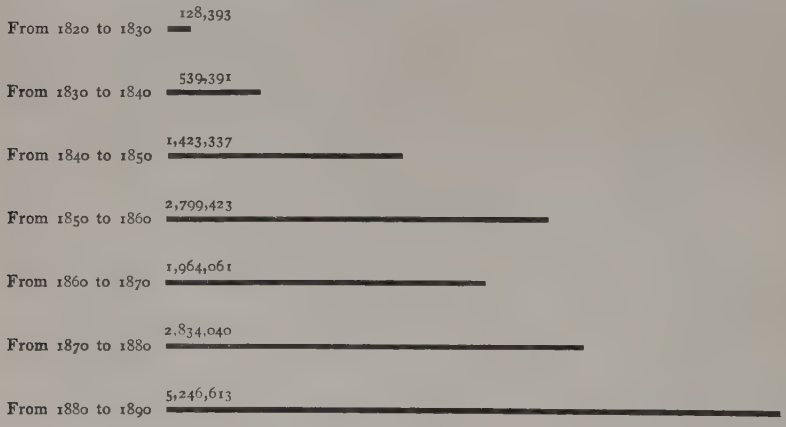


Chart No. 2.

Showing the Number of Immigrants Arriving Annually in the United States from 1873 to 1892, Inclusive.

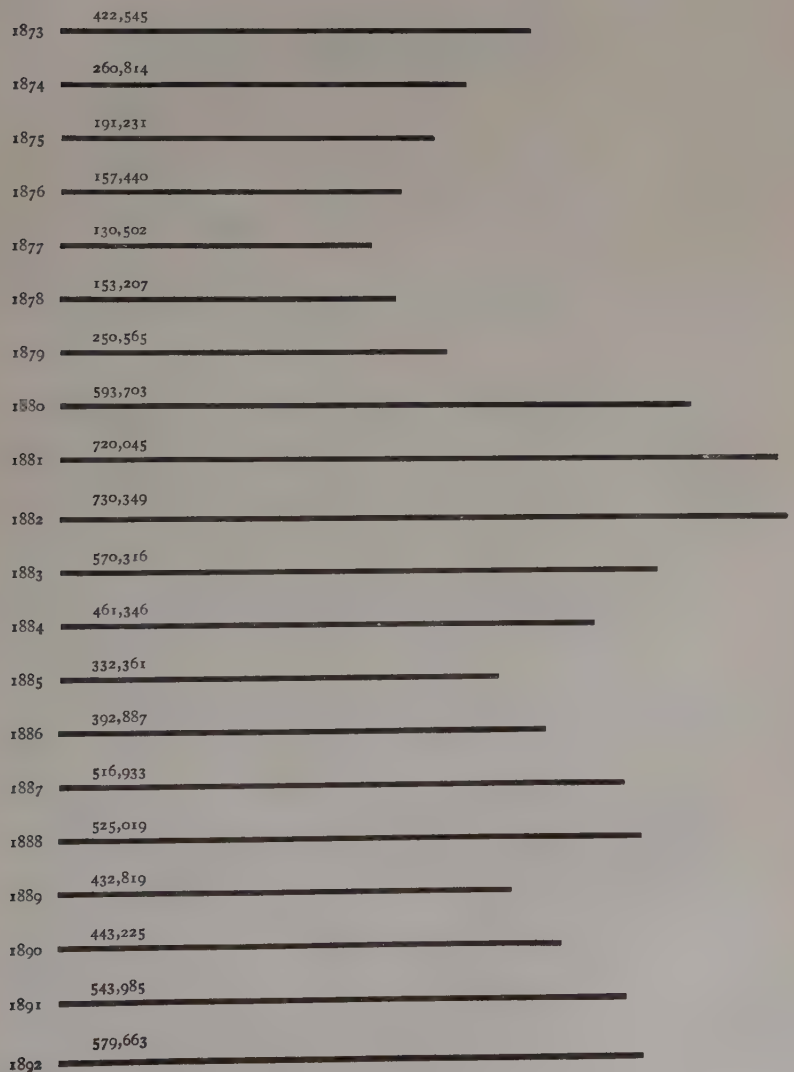


Chart No. 3.

SHOWING THE NATIONALITY OF IMMIGRANTS ARRIVING IN THE UNITED STATES EACH YEAR FROM 1873 TO 1892, INCLUSIVE.

Year.	Total.	England.	Ireland.	Scotland.	Wales.	Germany.	Belgium.	Holland.	Austria-Hungary.	Russia.	Norway.
1873, ...	422,545	69,612	75,860	13,013	870	131,141	1,306	4,640	7,835	6,466	18,107
1874, ...	260,814	43,402	47,694	8,767	559	56,927	705	1,533	7,743	8,900	6,581
1875, ...	191,231	30,044	29,974	5,741	420	36,565	623	1,073	6,786	5,099	4,465
1876, ...	157,440	21,054	16,509	4,385	295	31,323	454	709	6,522	7,662	6,031
1877, ...	130,502	18,123	13,791	3,408	232	27,417	367	572	4,916	3,698	4,333
1878, ...	153,207	19,582	17,113	3,700	311	31,958	454	652	5,513	4,792	5,216
1879, ...	250,565	40,998	27,652	8,728	1,046	43,531	753	1,199	7,777	4,679	9,488
1880, ...	593,703	64,192	84.801	14,496	949	134,040	1,484	3,730	24,920	8,013	23,054
1881, ...	720,045	76,550	70,911	16,452	1,317	249,572	1,939	10,812	28,193	14,796	26,967
1882, ...	730,349	70,896	72,940	15,958	1,634	232,269	1,129	7,880	29,917	22,451	27,197
1883, ...	570,316	61,434	83,656	10,840	1,431	184,389	1,673	4,926	30,236	10,165	21,295
1884, ...	461,346	53,312	58,632	8,800	1,012	155,529	1,722	3,731	31,396	19,968	13,906
1885, ...	332,361	44,711	49,794	10,174	931	107,668	1,363	2,499	25,037	20,052	11,692
1886, ...	392,887	58,425	52,915	13,917	1,344	86,301	1,641	2,667	40,116	33,216	13,859
1887, ...	516,933	83,038	72,890	22,067	1,614	111,324	2,987	5,276	39,087	30,775	18,322
1888, ...	525,019	76,044	71,970	23,413	1,714	106,975	2,961	5,457	41,665	43,255	17,178
1889, ...	432,819	68,515	65,557	18,296	1,181	99,538	2,562	6,460	34,174	38,838	13,390
1890, ...	443,225	57,039	53,024	12,041	650	92,427	2,671	4,326	56,199	46,671	11,370
1891, ...	543,985	53,624	55,706	12,557	424	113,554	3,037	5,206	71,042	74,923	12,568
1892, ...	579,663	34,309	51,383	7,177	729	119,168	4,026	6,141	76,937	122,047	14,325
Total, . . .	8,408,955	1,044,904	1,072,772	233,930	18,663	2,153,616	33,857	79,489	576,611	526,466	279,344

Chart No. 3 (*Continued*).

SHOWING THE NATIONALITY OF IMMIGRANTS ARRIVING IN THE UNITED STATES EACH YEAR FROM 1873 TO 1892, INCLUSIVE.

Year.	Sweden.	Denmark.	France.	Switzerl'nd.	Italy.	Other European Countries.	Asia.	Africa.	British North America.	Central and South America.	All Other Countries.
1873, ...	11,351	5,095	10,813	3,223	7,507	647	18,221	13	29,508	202	5,115
1874, ...	4,336	3,188	8,742	2,436	5,867	679	16,704	22	30,596	150	5,283
1875, ...	6,031	1,951	8,608	1,641	3,344	1,813	19,088	31	23,420	153	4,361
1876, ...	5,204	1,624	6,724	1,572	2,979	1,501	17,055	43	21,218	149	4,427
1877, ...	4,774	1,617	5,127	1,612	3,659	1,145	10,407	6	22,121	114	3,063
1878, ...	6,176	2,688	4,668	2,051	5,391	1,117	8,519	15	30,102	79	3,110
1879, ...	16,659	3,532	4,122	3,834	9,041	1,172	9,218	16	53,267	117	3,736
1880, ...	46,723	8,778	4,939	8,498	12,781	698	7,098	10	139,761	161	4,577
1881, ...	55,892	8,951	5,654	11,628	20,103	594	20,775	37	95,188	118	3,596
1882, ...	60,413	12,769	5,560	11,839	29,437	797	35,657	70	86,909	93	4,534
1883, ...	32,596	9,747	4,016	11,433	29,537	1,123	542	9	66,950	93	4,225
1884, ...	24,017	7,633	3,692	8,215	14,493	1,548	311	30	47,888	73	5,438
1885, ...	21,508	5,870	3,138	5,126	15,485	1,554	304	33	292	62	4,468
1886, ...	32,222	6,634	4,085	4,518	30,565	3,023	323	52	–	472	6,592
1887, ...	51,236	9,305	5,604	6,561	46,256	1,918	762	31	–	383	7,497
1888, ...	48,845	8,756	6,872	7,622	47,856	2,910	1,333	46	–	541	9,606
1889, ...	35,415	8,699	5,918	7,070	25,307	1,899	–	–	–	–	–
1890, ...	29,632	9,366	6,585	6,993	52,003	2,228	–	–	–	–	–
1891, ...	36,880	10,659	6,770	6,811	76,055	4,169	–	–	–	–	–
1892, ...	41,845	10,125	4,678	6,886	61,631	9,469	–	–	–	–	8,787
Total, . . .	571,755	136,987	116,315	119,569	499,297	40,004	166,317	464	647,220	2,960	88,415

Chart No. 4.

Showing the Comparative Nationality of 8,408,955 Immigrants, the Whole Number Arriving in the United States from 1873 to 1892, Inclusive.

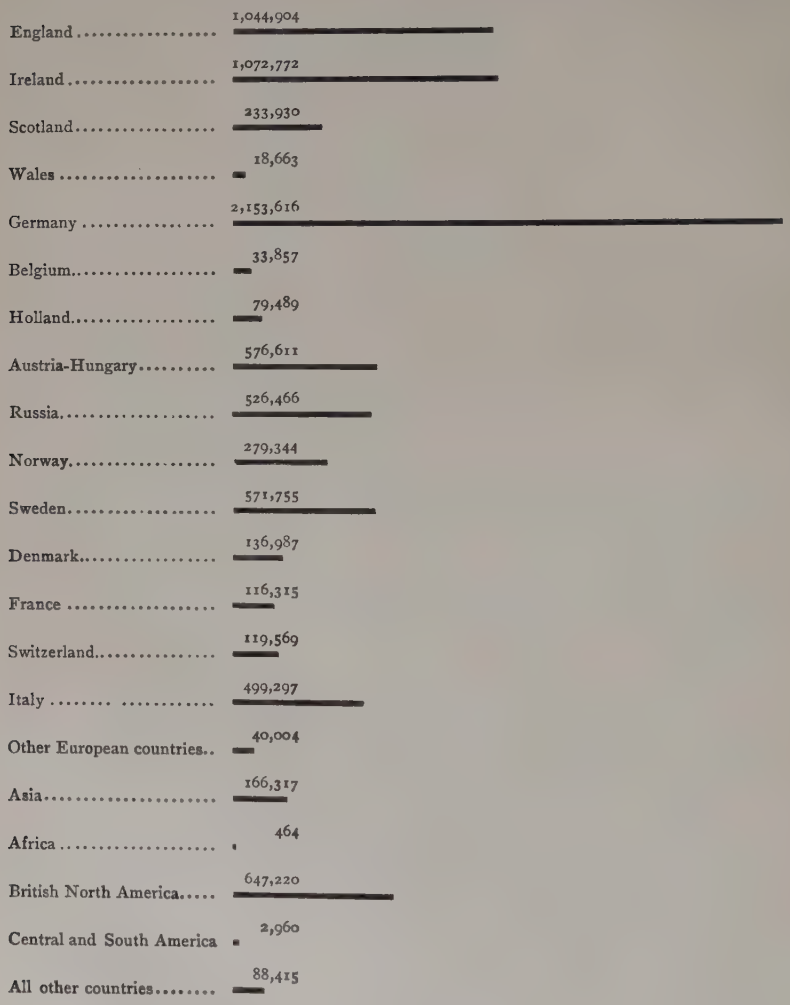


Chart No. 5.

SHOWING THE COMPARATIVE NATIONALITY OF 3,610,401 IMMIGRANTS, THE WHOLE NUMBER ARRIVING IN THE UNITED STATES FROM 1873 TO 1882, INCLUSIVE.

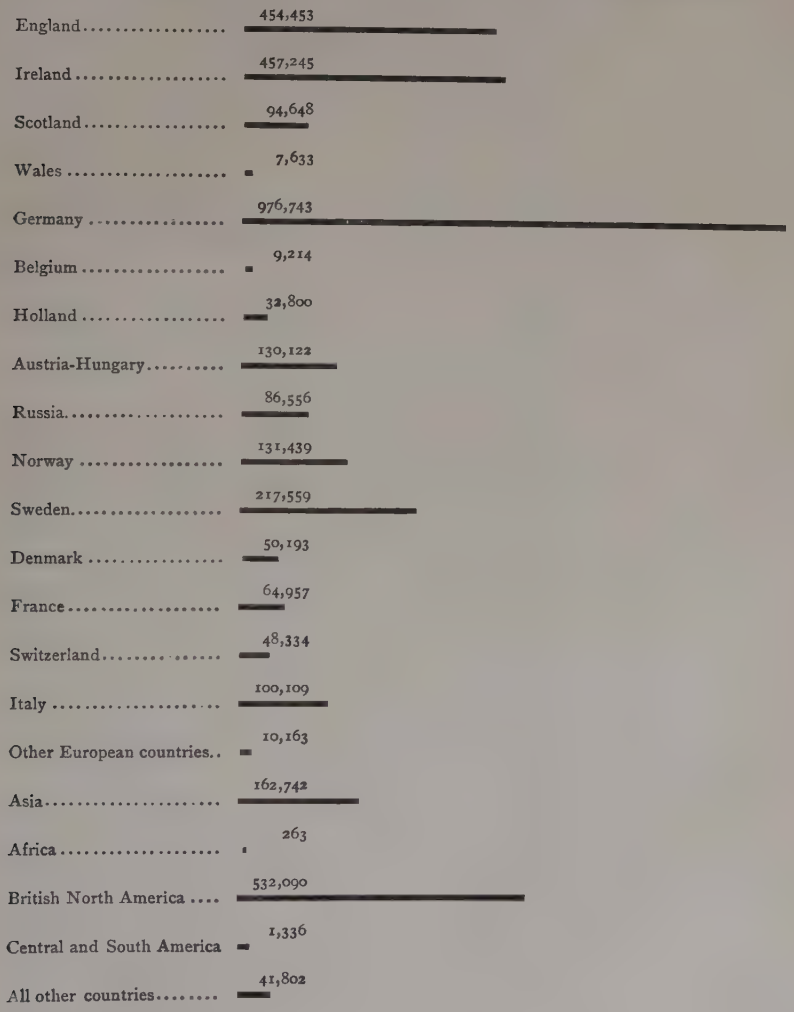
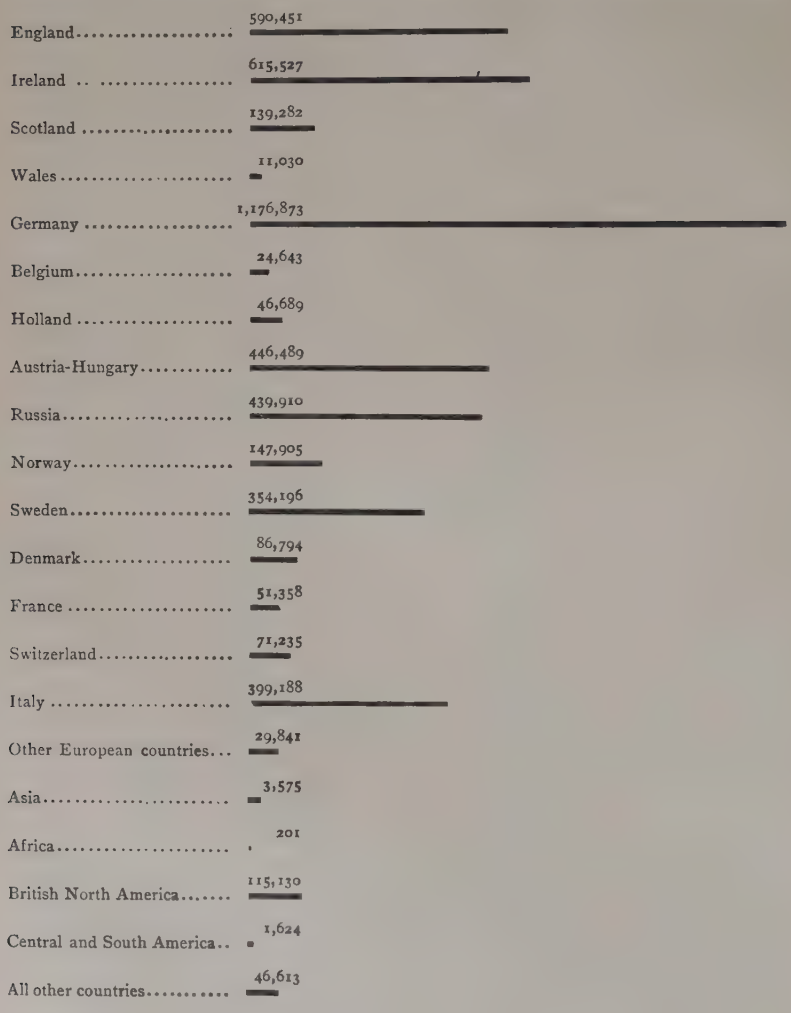


Chart No. 6.

SHOWING THE COMPARATIVE NATIONALITY OF 4,798,554 IMMIGRANTS, THE WHOLE NUMBER ARRIVING IN THE UNITED STATES FROM 1883 TO 1892, INCLUSIVE.



VI.

Child-saving.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON CHILD-SAVING WORK.

BY C. D. RANDALL, CHAIRMAN.

It is the question of the hour, the problem of the age. It was when the world began, and it is to-night. What shall we do for the children? The inquiry was new when there were at first two sons, one of whom was right, while the other was a criminal and a fugitive. Since then, in the same family and society, sometimes under elevating and again under debasing influences, one child has come out of the ordeal virtuous, and the other vicious. The history of child-life has the brightest and the darkest pages in the history of the race. Its recital presents tableaux beautiful and terrible. If there be anything for which man should be blessed, it is for his love and kindness to children. If there be anything for which man should be cursed, it is his cruelty to children. Through all time the child surrounded by the luxuries of affluence has fallen through idleness and enervating influences, and has often found his way to vice, dependence, and crime. The children of the poor are most exposed, and reach their sad fate through destitution, evil associations, and intemperance. The last ranks first as the most deadly enemy of childhood, and of itself causes poverty, and brings evil association. And yet how hard has poverty been upon the young! The Christian philosopher may say of poverty as Pascal did, "I love poverty because Jesus Christ loved it"; but he did not have in mind the poverty which Victor Hugo wrote of when he said, "Poverty is that wonderful and terrible trial from which the feeble come out infamous, from which the strong come out sublime, the crucible into which destiny casts a man whenever she desires a scoundrel or

a demigod." If man fails in such an ordeal, what may we expect of little children? The history of child-life tells us, and we know by our observation and experience, that as long as the children are exposed to temptation many will fall, and from their numbers the hosts of dependants and delinquents will be recruited.

What shall be done for dependent and delinquent children? has never been asked with more emphasis than within the past twenty years. In Europe and America there has been a new crusade carried on for children. Private and public charity have broadened in their inceptions, and been more intelligent in their performance. The inquiry has been not How little can be done? but What ought to be done? The history of child-saving work in the last twenty years cannot be told in this brief address. Your committee early recognized this, and by the kind assistance of others not members of the committee has prepared a volume uniform with the Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, for distribution among the members of the National and International Conference, which contains histories of some of the principal movements in child-saving work in this country covering the period named. This volume is composed of monographs by prominent writers who are best acquainted with the subjects on which they write. This volume has been published by the committee, the writers bearing all the expense of the work. It is presented to the actual members of the Conference as the contribution of the writers to the cause. The committee intends this volume, so far as it goes, as the history contemplated for this occasion.

There have been remarkable changes in our ideas in penology, pauperism, and prevention within twenty years. The papers and discussions in prison associations and in charity conferences twenty years ago did not have the character of to-day. Then the prison discussions were on discipline and the construction of prisons, and somewhat on reformation. Charity discussion was more how to treat, handle, and dispose of the multitude of unfortunates. Since then prevention has intruded upon the meetings, and would be heard. Twenty years ago the literature of prevention was limited, and in it there was very little to aid the student in his researches after better methods. What a change has been made since then! Prevention for years has had a hearing, and to-day such as it never had before. This has been brought about by various causes, includ-

ing the progress of the times, which in this work is accelerated by labors of devoted specialists and organizations, prominent in which has been the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Another cause has been the assistance of women in the work. We have seen them in national and international associations as speakers and writers of intelligence, force, and influence, in reformatory and charitable institutions as superintendents and members of boards of control, where they have been capable and efficient. They have carried into the work a motherly solicitude, a love for family life, and softening influences strengthening in their effect. The writings of European specialists and the experiences and legislation there have had a marked influence in America; and the new thoughts and new methods of America, which is *par excellence* the land of advance and reform, have been received with welcome abroad, and have been incorporated into systems there or have modified them. States have copied each other's laws and methods, and profited by each other's experiences. In these various ways advances have been made, some of which will be mentioned relative to children.

The close of the nineteenth century witnesses the recognition of sociology as a science as never before. While in several universities lectures have been occasionally given on the subject, it was not given a department with lectures through the year until this was done in the Chicago University. This department is in charge of the Rev. Dr. Henderson, who, as a student and teacher, has made this department one of great importance, and one which we expect to be of great usefulness. The child problem will have full attention in the Chicago University.

Removal of Children from the County Poorhouses.

In 1876 the Hon. William P. Letchworth, LL.D., presented to the National Prison Association, held in the city of New York, the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted: —

Resolved, That it be recommended to the members of this Congress, and all others interested in the reforms which it seeks to effect, to use their best efforts to bring about, whenever practicable, such legislation as shall cause dependent children to be removed from county poorhouses, city and town almshouses, and common jails, and from all association with adult paupers and criminals, and placed in families, asylums, and other appropriate institutions.

The State of New York, through the efforts of our distinguished and beloved co-worker, Mr. Letchworth, enacted a law substantially in keeping with the tenor of this resolution; and to him belongs the honor of inaugurating the great work of excluding dependent children from the county poorhouses. Their confinement in county poorhouses with adult inmates had existed for generations, and continues now in many of our States. These houses are, as they always were, nurseries of pauperism and crime. The impressionable child lived there in common with the vicious, insane, and idiotic, in close and familiar association, and was soon contaminated. Michigan had in 1871 provided a home for its dependent children, virtually excluding them from the county poorhouses, and subsequently enacted the New York statute, positively excluding the children from the county poorhouses.. Pennsylvania soon enacted the New York law. Some other States did the same; and, although the States generally have not followed, yet the correctness of its principle is admitted by all.

Classification.

In Mr. Letchworth's resolution, and in the laws of Michigan and New York, the idea of a better classification appears in reference to dependent and delinquent children. The removal of the children from county poorhouses was the first necessary step to classification. Michigan about that time passed an act which provided that children under sixteen years of age should not be confined in jails in the same rooms or cells with adult prisoners. Other States have followed with similar provisions, and the principle is accepted as correct. It is well known that a vicious child will corrupt his companion sooner than an adult will spoil the child. The most radical classification which requires the separation of delinquent and dependent children exists in Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Rhode Island. The general adoption of this classification would hasten the decline of child dependence and crime.

The Protection of Children from Cruelty.

There has been a decided advance in ideas in this respect within twenty years, which has led to important legislation. The noted

New York society for the protection of children has been of unlimited benefit to the public and ill-treated children, and its influence has led to the creation of numerous similar societies in this country. Laws relative to punishment of offenders for ill-treatment and the forfeiture of parental rights for the cruel treatment of children have been matured, and definitions which heretofore were crude and left too much in the discretion of the court have been made clearer. The definition in the Michigan statute is probably the most concise and broadest, as it covers not only physical, but mental and moral ill-treatment. An ill-treated child is defined to be: —

First.— One whose father, mother, or guardian shall habitually violate or permit such child to violate Sections 1, 2, 5, and 6 of this act. [These sections prohibit parents, etc., from permitting their children to act as beggars, acrobats, etc., and frequenting liquor saloons, selling obscene papers, etc.]

Second.— One whose father, mother, or guardian habitually causes or permits the health of such child to be injured, or his health or life to be endangered by exposure, want, or other injury to his person, or causes or permits him to engage in any occupation that will be likely to endanger his health or life or deprave his morals.

Third.— One whose father, mother, or guardian is an habitual drunkard or a person of notorious and scandalous conduct, or a reputed thief or prostitute, or one who habitually permits him to frequent public places for the purpose of begging or receiving alms, or to frequent the company of or consort with reputed thieves or prostitutes with or without such father, mother, or guardian, or by any other act, example, or vicious training depraves the morals of such child.

Under this act parental rights are forfeited and the child committed to the State Public School, or may be placed directly in an approved home by the court. The law will be found in full in the reports of this Conference for the meeting in San Francisco. A California paper stated that, if for nothing else, it was worth holding the Conference there to learn Michigan's definition of ill-treatment.

The protection of children under the common law and by recent statutes has, of late, become more certain. The old English common law gave the father absolute control of the child. The tendency for many years has been, in legislation and in the courts, to place the rights of the State and child first, and the parents last. The welfare

of the State is always involved in that of the child. Now the universal rule is, and greatly strengthened within twenty years, that the custody of the child shall be trusted to the parent best fit to have charge of its training, and, if neither parent is, then to award it to some suitable person or institution.

State Custody of Dependent Children.

The most significant advance during the past twenty years is State custody, supervision, and support of dependent children. This includes their education and placing in family homes through the agency of a central home in which they are collected, and from whence they are restored to family life. This system was established in Michigan in 1871, and put in operation in 1874,— nineteen years ago. That was the first State or government that had ever undertaken such a work. It has proved eminently successful. This is the system which has been adopted in Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Rhode Island, and has been very favorably considered in other States.

The history of this system is fully described in the volume presented by this committee, the writer being Mr. Galen A. Merrill, superintendent of the Minnesota State Public School. The correctness of the theory on which this system is based has been generally commended. Its more general adoption has been prevented by local influences, especially by the opposition of old precedents, established usages, conflicting interests, and the distrust of anything that is new. But this system has established its great economy and its usefulness for the State and the children beyond all question. In Michigan it has reduced child dependence in nineteen years fifty per cent. at least, while the population has increased at least seventy per cent. In other States child dependence has increased in greater ratio than the population, and the expenses have become enormous. Papers read in this Conference show in other States the increased child dependence in a greater ratio than the population. If for no other reason, the past twenty years have been more remarkable for the inauguration of this system than has any other twenty years in the history of child-saving. The system is not limited as private charity necessarily is, but cares for all the dependent children of the State, restoring them to family homes.

As Members of the Family.

In visiting English and Scottish institutions, and there are many of high grade, I saw as bright girls and boys as one could find; and to my inquiries for what they were trained the universal answer was, "For domestic service." That was discouraging to me. Generally, in America the dependent child has a better chance in life, and especially under the Michigan system, where the contract of indenture requires that the child "shall be treated as a member of the family." That means the child is to be at the same table, in the same school-house, in the same church, and in the same social life with the family. This is a remarkable advance over the harshness of old English apprenticeship, which has found little way in America. Training for domestic service has not yet become an idea in American institutions. Here they are trained for equal citizens, and for that of course our opportunities are best.

The Work of Private Charities.

The amount of work done by the private charities in this country is immense. It has increased from year to year until it is of very great magnitude. The development of private charity will be found partly described in the volume of this committee, but its full study must be obtained from reports of the institutions. In general, the methods pursued have been commendable, and the results highly satisfactory; and their influence has been marked on the progress of child-saving in this country.

The ideal system to accomplish the most good in child-saving has not been reached. All systems have their merits and defects. Here are some suggestions given as to the features of an ideal system.

1. State supervision and control of all public and private institutions for children to the extent necessary to secure full protection to the children in their civil and natural rights.

2. No child to be placed in a public or private institution except on judicial finding and approval that the child is dependent or delinquent.

3. All public and private institutions required to place dependent children in approved family homes within a reasonable time, the same course to be pursued with delinquent children, when practicable.

4. The State to furnish aid to public institutions only, but to give full encouragement otherwise to private charities, reserving supervision.

5. The protection of ill-treated children by the execution of stringent provisions of law and forfeiture of parental rights, when necessary to that end.

6. Always the radical separation of dependent and delinquent children.

In connection with the first clause attention is called to Miss Minton's paper in the full report of this committee, also to Mr. Letchworth's. When we show that in less than twenty years Michigan has reversed the rule of the ages that pauperism and crime increase in greater ratio than the population, the question of this hour is, Why will not other States for both humanity and economy do likewise? The answer is brief. In the older States especially, systems like that of New York and California have created influences that must involve the public in the maintenance of present conditions for a long time to come. We will hope for the best, especially from States which are freer to act. In twenty years from now there should be no institution for children with even three hundred inmates. The institution should be only the half-way house while the child is on its way to a home. Detention in institutions for dependants or delinquents should only be to fit them for restoration to family homes. When this is done, our institution for children will have many vacant rooms, and many more family homes will be blessed by the presence of children. To reach that result, the humanitarian labors to-day, now with encouragement and then with disappointment, but never surrendering. We think the future will measure men better than now. Some time we will not revere most the queen of the empire or the princess of to-day who receives our acclamations, but the Mary Carpenters who devoted their lives for the holy cause of the little children. In the future among the names of men we shall place highest those of John Howard of England, Baccaria of Italy, and Enoch Wines of America, because they loved their fellows, even in the dungeons.

But in the better age we shall not honor most the man who devised the best prison or matured the highest system of prison discipline, but the man or the woman who reaches down among the lowly and rescues the little child from the hardness of poverty and the danger of crime, and elevates it to a higher and better life.

NOTE.—The following is the Table of Contents of the Report of the Committee on Child-saving Work, presented by MR. RANDALL to the Twentieth National Conference of Charities and Correction.—ED.

Introduction. By C. D. RANDALL, Chairman.

The Children's Aid Society of New York. Its History, Plans, and Results. By CHARLES LORING BRACE, founder of the Society.

Family Life *versus* Institution Life. By Miss SOPHIE E. MINTON, Chairman Committee on Children, State Charities Aid Association, New York.

The Massachusetts System of Caring for State Minor Wards. By Mrs. ANNE B. RICHARDSON, member of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity.

Non-sectarian Endowed Child-saving Institutions. By LYMAN P. Alden, Superintendent Rose Orphan Home, Terre Haute, Ind.

The Kindergarten in its Bearings upon Crime, Pauperism, and Insanity. By Mrs. SARAH B. COOPER, of San Francisco.

Saving the Children: Sixteen Years' Work among the Dependent Youth of Chicago. By OSCAR L. DUDLEY, General Manager of the Illinois School of Agriculture and Manual Training for Boys.

The History of Child-saving Work in Connecticut. By Mrs. VIRGINIA T. SMITH, of Hartford, Conn.

Children's Homes in Ohio. By S. J. HATHAWAY, Trustee Washington County, Children's Home, Marietta, Ohio

Child-saving Work in Pennsylvania. By HOMER FOLKS, till recently Superintendent Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania.

The History of Child-saving Work in the State of New York. By WILLIAM PRYOR LETCHWORTH, of the State Board of Charities.

State Public Schools for Dependent and Neglected Children. By G. A. MERRILL, Superintendent of the Minnesota School.

Statement from the Trustees of the State Primary and Reform Schools of Massachusetts. By Mrs. GLENDOWER EVANS.

The Catholic Protectory of New York: Its Spirit and its Workings from its Origin to the Present.

VII.

Reformatories.

THE HISTORY OF REFORMATORIES.

BY REV. J. H. NUTTING.

Owing to circumstances largely beyond my control, it became necessary to prepare this report without assistance from other members of the Committee on the History of Reformatories: hence only the writer can be held in any way responsible for its utterances.

All reforms are the expression of ideas. The history of a reform is really a history of the rise and acceptance of reformatory ideas. Before there could be a reformatory for offenders against the peace and well-being of society, certain ideas concerning them had to be given up, and certain other ideas of a different and a better quality accepted.

There was the feeling that one found guilty of crime was only a subject for condemnation and punishment. The society that he had outraged owed him nothing but to kill him, or at least to shut him up under conditions such as would make his life miserable. At the beginning of this century two hundred and twenty-three offences were punishable with death; and it was thought that the best way to execute a criminal was the way that would insure to him a good measure of suffering. Electrocution has of late been much discussed, and the reason strongly urged in its favor as against hanging is that death thus inflicted is instantaneous and painless. Not very long ago the same reason would have been as strongly urged on the other side of the argument, or it would have been at least denied that the feelings of the victim should have any influence in the matter. No one deemed it his duty to care for the imprisoned. They were as men dead before their time. One State kept her

prisoners in the underground excavations of an old mine, dripping with dampness, and into which the light of day never entered. Every prison was a scene of horrors. Men gathered their robes about them, and thanked God that they were not so ill-deserving as those prisoners whom the law had condemned, and whom it was the duty of all law-abiding citizens to hate. It was in the divine order that bad people should be punished by good people; and, if the disposition of these last to conform themselves to the divine order should have in it some element of vengefulness and cruelty, they were not to be severely censured on account of a feeling so perfectly natural.

Closely connected with this was the notion that punishment is to be inflicted for its own sake, that the end of penalty is to make the wrong-doer suffer. Thus will his offence be expiated, and the demands of the law be fully met: only thus could justice be vindicated. That this idea has not been abandoned by all intelligent people appears from a paper read at the National Prison Congress held in Baltimore last December, the writer of which said, "The end of punishment is to punish." It is an unchristian and a barbarous sentiment; but I doubt not that it had an echo in the minds of some listeners, as I know it is entertained even at this late day by not a few persons who should have a better understanding of the matter.

There was also an exaggerated notion of the deterrent force of penalty executed. It was thought that, if the criminal were made to suffer severely enough, he would cease from crime, and that others, seeing what was done to him, would through fear be constrained to walk uprightly. It was thought that, the severer the penalty, the greater its power to prevent crime, and that any general effort to make less unendurable the criminal's case would be to open the gates and turn a flood of lawlessness upon society. At the same time, when a man had been hanged for stealing a rabbit, the stealing of rabbits did not cease; and, when a man had been publicly whipped for appropriating a pair of old and half-worn woollen socks, he continued thereafter, as before, an incorrigible thief.

Such ideas had to be outgrown in a measure before there could be in the world such an institution as a reformatory for criminals of any age or of any degree. It must be seen that the men who are confined within prison walls are not of necessity monsters, but very

like the men who are not imprisoned, intensely human in all their attributes, having human instincts, human passions, and human limitations, the same in kind as are possessed by other men, and therefore capable of being influenced by the same motives that influence other men, yet differing among themselves as other men differ among themselves.

It must be seen that the same act done by different persons may not be at all the same act or involve its differing perpetrators in the same guilt and demerit; that the stage of mental and moral development reached by the offender is to be taken into the account, and permitted to have its weight in determining the treatment which he should receive; that childish and youthful offenders are not to be regarded as like the man behind whom are many years of crime and numerous periods of imprisonment; that what might be justice in the one case may be the grossest injustice in the other; that treatment should differ as individuals differ. It must be seen that much of the crime that is perpetrated by young persons is the result of a heedless failure to forecast the consequences to themselves and to others or an inability to perceive moral differences, rather than the result of a premeditated and deliberate intent to do wrong; and that the majority of those who commit crime in their mature years have but little will power, being very often more weak than wicked in their law-breaking.

In view of these things, it must further be perceived that the true end of punishment is the protection of society, and that society is best protected when in his punishment the wrong-doer has been reformed; that the penalty of a broken law may be so administered as that it shall have a corrective value, and, however grievous in its day, shall at last bring forth the peaceable fruits of righteousness in them that are exercised thereby, becoming thus like unto the chastening of the Lord; that, instead of being in any measure of a vindictive intent, all penalty should be filled with a spirit looking toward newness of life; that, while the law-breaker is shut away from society for the good of society, society is bound, so far as may be, to make his term of imprisonment conduce to his best good and serve his highest interests. In a word, it must be seen that a just penalty, instead of being for the gratification of the more virtuous members of society or for the balancing of accounts with the evil-doer, setting so much pain to be endured over against so much evil done, should

have clearly and always in mind the profit of him upon whom it shall fall, and that to this end it should be received in an atmosphere that is surcharged with reformative influences.

Before there could be a well-appointed and wisely administered reformatory prison or school, it was essential that the criminal should be understood. Though in all essentials he is as other men, he is yet in most cases defective. His deficiencies must be known, that they may be remedied. Commonly, he is physically unwholesome. The sin of his fathers is visited upon him in the form of a scrofulous taint. His own excesses and immoralities have to some extent, greater or less, shattered his constitution; he has in every conceivable way disregarded the conditions of health, till he is in a weakened state where he may become the easy prey of any disease that shall assail him. The necessity must appear of compelling him to live in a wholesome way, while he receives such medical assistance as his case may require.

In a great many instances he is illiterate. He has not learned to read and write, or he can do these things but poorly. Arithmetic is to him an unknown science. He must be taught the rudiments of knowledge, his mind stimulated, if possible, to seek wider attainments.

He may call himself a Roman Catholic or a Protestant: in either case, he has neglected the church, knows little of Christian doctrine, is uninstructed in that which is required by the moral law. The importance of his being given religious instruction must be admitted.

He is destitute of industrial training, and has no industrial habit. The number of men skilled at any craft is exceedingly small in our prisons. Almost as small is the number of those who have worked continually as laborers of any grade. The vast majority of our prison population are idlers by taste and by occupation. Work is a necessity, and it should be of a kind at which they may earn honest dollars when the period of their confinement is at an end.

The average criminal is lacking in manly qualities. He is but partially developed in the higher attributes of human nature. He does not know how to restrain himself, and he must be taught to do this. He is like a boy who has no plans for the future, does not entertain a thought of what he shall be or what he shall have next year: he must be taught how to-day may serve to-morrow. He is the victim of an inordinate self-conceit. Somehow, this conceit must

be taken out of him, and he be made to feel that in point of fact he is the fool of all fools.

I have said nothing of the necessity that the grace of God shall come upon the criminal, in order to make him a man true and good, a law-abiding member of society. This necessity I recognize. Of the agencies through which it works I am speaking. Let these be furnished, and the efficient activity of grace divine will not be wanting.

Reformative ideas such as I have noted have been rapidly gaining ground during the last twenty years. In its annual gatherings this body has done much for their dissemination. Its members have acted as evangelists of the good news spoken in meetings like this, have travelled far and wide instructing the people in the same things,— and by not a few they have been received gladly,— until the effect is manifest in the appointments, the discipline, and the methods of nearly all prisons. Institutions have been founded whose prime motive is to improve and reform those whom the safety of the law-abiding demands shall be shut away from the common pursuits and liberties of life. These are of two classes,— those for adults and those for boys and girls.

In the year 1825 a House of Refuge had been established on Randall's Island, in the city of New York, through the efforts of Edward Livingston and his enlightened coadjutors, its purpose being to train idle and neglected youth who were growing up amid vicious surroundings. A similar institution was opened in Boston the following year, and another in Philadelphia two years later. To all of these boys and girls under sentence were committed, and by each aid was received from the public revenue. They were not, however, managed by the State; nor were they a component part of the penal system in the States where they were located.

The first State Reform School was established at Westboro, Mass., in the year 1847, other States quickly following the example of Massachusetts, till there were, in 1872, reform schools dependent wholly or in part upon the State for support, and recognized as a part of the State's penal system, in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and California; while in nearly all the other States there were schools of the same general aim and character, but under private or munic-

ipal management. The average number of inmates in the year 1871 was estimated at 12,000 boys and 1,000 girls.

The number of inmates in forty-five reform schools scattered throughout the United States was, in the year 1891, almost 15,000. These were supported at an aggregate expense of perhaps $2,900,000, or at a cost of $193 for each inmate. It seems impossible to name exact figures, because of the custom which some have of reporting the reform school unitedly with some other institution, an example of this being shown in the case of the Indiana Girls' School, which is reported with the Woman's Prison. Another example is in the case of the school on Deer Island in Boston Harbor, which is reported with the House of Industry and the House of Reformation.

Thirteen schools are reported as walled schools, and thirty as open schools, which shows how widely it has been decided that Dr. Howe was not mistaken when many years ago he declared in the State of Ohio that the prison features should be eliminated from a juvenile reformatory. The value of these numbers is, however, lessened when the facts concerning some schools reported as open are known. The word "open" seems to be a not very exact term: its meaning differs widely as applied to different schools. One so-called open school is in the same building with the State prison, and governed by the same officers, and, so far as an observant visitor can see, is subject to the same restraints and the same sort of discipline, the inmates of the two institutions meeting together in one chapel every Sunday. Another so-called open school is on an island in the Atlantic Ocean, with some miles of deep water around it, and is closely connected with two reformatories for adults in all its management. On the other hand, one school appears to the visitor as free of all that would suggest the prison as any well-regulated and wisely governed academy or boarding-school.

The character of the industries pursued in reform schools has been for some time changing. The employment of boys and girls upon contract labor is deservedly falling into disrepute, and has been in some schools wholly abolished. The practice of requiring that they shall earn their support at brush-making, cane-seating, and at other forms of toil at which they can never hope to earn a dollar after leaving the school, finds the number of its defenders fast diminishing. It is being seen that the more profitable thing for the

State is to teach the boy to make something which has not the penitentiary stamp on it, and which he can make with profit to himself after leaving the school. Some years since the first trades school within a reform school was instituted at Rochester, N.Y., under that veteran reform school superintendent, Captain Levi S. Fulton, now at the head of the Cincinnati House of Refuge. This feature has since been introduced into a few other schools, one of these attempting with great success to teach no less than six of the trades at which, if one be proficient, he can always earn a comfortable and honest livelihood. It is safe to say that twenty years from now a large majority of all the reform schools in the United States will be trades schools.

The results of that which has been done for reform school boys and girls must be recognized as abundantly compensating for all the expenditure incurred. Some have said that six out of ten, and others that eight out of ten, of all that were admitted to the schools, have afterward become industrious, honest, and useful citizens. Such statements are not to be received without question. The impossibility of following them all when they have passed out into freedom appears, a multitude dropping almost immediately out of sight, who may or may not be doing well. It can, however, be said with confidence that the number is large of those whose future seemed most unpromising, and who would but for the influence of the reform school be now occupying cells in our penitentiaries, but who are now living respectably in the world. It can also be said that the ratio of reform school boys who afterward must be counted in our prison population is gratifyingly small.

Perhaps I cannot better show the great advance that has been made than by describing briefly a model school of to-day. It is an ideal school, realized in actual life. I may be excused for saying that it is a school to which the writer holds an official relation. This school is in the country, on a farm perhaps of sixty acres, at a considerable distance from all neighbors, and having no relations in its management with any other institution whatsoever. Only boys are received who have been convicted in the courts of crime or misdemeanor, and it therefore prefers to be known as a reform school rather than by any other title that might less correctly interpret its real character and work. It is an open school; that is, there is neither wall nor fence about it, and upon the doors and windows of

the various buildings are only such locks as are used in our dwellings. It is a cottage school, each cottage accommodating perhaps fifty boys, and complete in itself, having its own dining-room, school-room, bath-room, sleeping-rooms, and playground, with its own teacher and officers, who have their home in the cottage with the boys. It is a trades school, turning out printers, carpenters, blacksmiths, and machinists, who easily find employment as such when discharged from the school. Such boys as are not likely to succeed at one of these trades work on the farm and about the barn. It is neither expected nor desired that the boys shall earn a dollar for the State, but only that they shall know how to earn a dollar for themselves when they go free. All attend school three hours in each day, five days in a week, and twelve months in the year. Such boys as are too small for the shops are in the school-room six hours in each day. All the teachers are young women of excellent social standing, and well qualified to teach in the free public schools of any city in the State. The boys are organized into a battalion of infantry, with a competent military instructor, each cottage furnishing an officered company. There is a chaplain, in his official station neither a Roman Catholic nor a Protestant, but simply a Christian, who meets all the boys in chapel on Sunday, and conducts with them a service of instruction and worship, in which every boy has his own part. There is freedom of worship for the adherents of every creed and church, and of this freedom some regularly avail themselves, as they are visited by their respective clergymen, but all must attend the chaplain's service. The boys are not permitted on leaving the school to drop at once out of the knowledge and thought of its management, but are inquired after and visited till it is believed that they are fully established in right ways; and they in turn maintain an active interest in the school, delighting in visits made to the school, where they are always welcome, and in other ways keeping themselves familiar with its workings and progress.

If the number of schools to which this description might apply in all its details is small, those which are advancing toward the same high grade of excellence are certainly many.

VIII.

The Prison Question.

PROGRESS FOR TWENTY YEARS, 1873–93.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON THE HISTORY OF PRISONS.

BY GENERAL R. BRINKERHOFF, CHAIRMAN.

In the consideration of progress made in dealing with the various classes of people that come within the purview of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, it is evident that with the criminal classes less progress has been made than in any other. The reasons for this are evident enough; but it is not our purpose now to consider them, but simply to ascertain what progress, if any, has been made in the last twenty years.

During the period of time commencing ten years before the War of the Rebellion, which is known as the anti-slavery period, and continuing ten years after it, prison reform was not active. In 1870, however, the National Prison Association was organized, and a notable meeting was held in Cincinnati, in which thirty-nine States were represented; and the importance of the prison question was considered and emphasized.

Three years later the National Conference of Charities and Correction was organized; but during the first five years its annual reports do not show any reference to the prison question, except a brief discussion in regard to juvenile delinquents.

The Prison Congress of Cincinnati, however, inaugurated a new era, and the seed there sown took root, and with the fostering care of the three succeeding congresses of Baltimore, St. Louis, and New York, in 1872, 1874, and 1876, grew and flourished; and then, upon the discontinuance of the Prison Congress, the National Conference of Charities and Correction in 1878 took up the work, and until 1883, when the Prison Congress was reorganized, was the only national organization giving special attention to prison reforms.

Boards of State Charities and Correction.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction originated with the State boards of charities and correction in existence in 1873; and growth has been due mainly to the increase in the number of these boards, which now includes one-third of the States of the Union, and it is to their influence very largely that the progress made in dealing with the criminal classes is due.

In New York and Massachusetts, where the State Board of Charities has no supervision of corrections, its place has been supplied by the New York Prison Association and the Massachusetts Prison Commission; and in Maryland, where there is no board of charities or of corrections, the Prisoners' Aid Association has taken its place.

Wherever a State board of charities and correction or its equivalent exists, there progress has been the greatest, and during the period under consideration there is no fact more evident; and therefore to the extension of these or similar organizations we must look in the main for progress in the future.

The Elmira Reformatory.

The first long step forward in prison reform during the period now under consideration was the organization of the New York State Reformatory in 1877 at Elmira, when, for the first time in America, adult felons were committed under the indeterminate sentence, and were treated under a system of progressive classification and conditional release based upon attainments in conduct and character while in prison.

The success of the Elmira system, which is a modification of the Crofton system, marks the beginning of the end of the old repressive, deterrent, *lex talionis* ideas of dealing with criminals; and the light of the new era is now visible in every State in the Union.

Reformatories for adults upon the Elmira pattern, so far as grades, marks, and conditional liberation are concerned, have been established in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Minnesota, and South Dakota, and its principles, to a greater or less extent, are now in practical operation in a majority of our American prisons, and it is fair to predict that before the close of the opening decade

of the coming century the Elmira system of graded prisons and classified prisoners will prevail in every State in the Union.

As an outgrowth of the Elmira experiment, we have in several States the parole system without the indeterminate sentence. This modification first went into effect in the Ohio penitentiary at Columbus in 1885, and has since been extended to Minnesota, California, and New Jersey, and is under legislative consideration in several other States.

Prison Labor.

Twenty years ago the system of contract labor in our American prisons was practically universal, and prison industries as a means of reformation or of preparation for free life were not largely considered; and the Cincinnati Congress of 1870 declared that "we regard the contract system of prison labor as commonly practised in this country as prejudicial alike to discipline, finance, and the reformation of the prisoner."

Since then no prison subject has received larger attention than prison labor, and, notwithstanding the vagaries of labor unions and the mistakes of well-meaning reformers, a large advance has been made in its employment as a reformatory discipline.

In several of the larger States contract labor has been abolished. So, also, by an act of Congress passed in 1887, "the employment at contract labor of any criminal incarcerated for violation of any laws of the government of the United States was prohibited."

The subject of prison labor is still open to large discussion as to methods and systems, but the importance of utilizing it for reformatory purposes is no longer denied. Even in the South where the lease system, that worst form of contract labor, has prevailed almost universally, a great change in public sentiment has taken place in recent years; and in Texas, Alabama, Arkansas, the Carolinas, and in both East and West Virginia, legislative provisions have already been made for its entire abolition, and in Nebraska and Montana there is a public sentiment which is not likely to permit its continuance beyond the life of existing leases.

In Alabama, which is the heart of the old South, in the month of February last, an act was passed providing for the classification of convicts, and requiring "that the labor and instructions of the convicts of the first or better grade shall be directed with reference to

fitting the convict to maintain himself by honest industry after his discharge from imprisonment as the main object of such labor and training."

In a large majority of reformatories for juvenile delinquents the labor of inmates is a part of the school curriculum, and industrial training a dominant requirement. In fact, some of these institutions are practically schools of technology; and of these the New York Industrial School at Rochester, the House of Refuge at Cincinnati, and the Reformatory at Whittier, Cal., are notable examples.

Prison Punishments.

At the National Prison Congress at Cincinnati, in 1870, the warden of a large prison is reported as saying, "I think the legitimate object of a prison is to punish men for committing crime." Another prison warden is reported as saying in a speech to his subordinate officers, "It is evident these men are sent here for punishment; and now the great question to solve is, How shall we proceed to punish them the most?" It is not likely that any American warden in 1893 would approve a doctrine so atrocious; but, if there are any such, they are rare and very new in prison management.

Twenty years ago, with rare exceptions, the lash or some other form of physical torture was considered indispensable to the maintenance of discipline in our prisons, but in recent years its necessity has been largely questioned; and in all our prisons its use has greatly decreased, and in some it has been entirely abandoned. In fact, corporal punishment, at least in our Northern prisons, is now the exception rather than the rule; and in several States it is prohibited by law. For the initiation of this reform and in maintaining a continuous example of its wisdom the country is largely indebted to the humane and intelligent wardens of the penitentiaries at Allegheny, Penn., and the United States Military Prison at Leavenworth, Kan.

In the maintenance of discipline the principle of rewards, with progressive classification, has been shown to be more effective than physical torture; and the old barbarisms are rapidly passing away. Instead of punishment as the main purpose of imprisonment, the dominant idea has become the protection of society, which can be best secured by the reformation of the prisoner or, upon failure to reform, by his permanent retention in prison.

Prison Schools.

During the past twenty years there has been large improvement in the opportunities offered for the moral and intellectual culture of prisoners; and a prison now without a school where prisoners who are illiterate can at least learn to read and write is exceptional, and a prison without some moral or religious instruction on the Sabbath is practically unknown.

Prison Construction.

During the past twenty years about forty new penal and reformatory institutions have been erected; and large improvements in construction have been attained in all directions, and especially in sanitary arrangements. Of the convict prisons the best examples, probably, are the Western Pennsylvania Penitentiary at Allegheny, the New York State Reformatory at Elmira, the Ohio State Reformatory at Mansfield, the Industrial Reformatory at Huntington, Penn., and the Minnesota State Reformatory at St. Cloud. Of the juvenile reformatories the State School at Whittier, Cal., and the State Reform School at Red Wing, Minn., are probably the most satisfactory.

Of the older prisons many have been enlarged, and some practically reconstructed, and all, doubtless, are more or less improved. So far as construction is concerned, our American prisons compare favorably with those of any other country.

Prisons for Women.

In the care of female prisoners the most notable advance made during the past twenty years is the establishment of the Massachusetts Reformatory for Women, which was opened June 30, 1874, and which in its equipment and management and reformatory results has no superior in the world. From the beginning it has been controlled by women. The number of its inmates now is about four hundred and fifty. It is conducted upon the Elmira system, but has four grades instead of three, and its methods of marking are somewhat different, and its system of paroles is largely different. In all its departments it is admirably managed, and as a prison for

women is a model for the nation; and it is worthy of imitation elsewhere.

The Women's Reformatory at Indianapolis, which is the first of its kind in America, is also worthy of notice and commendation.

County Jails.

Of all our prisons our county jails are the most unsatisfactory; but still during the past twenty years they have made greater progress than in the previous century, and there is now a public sentiment in favor of a revolution in jail construction and management which commands attention, and promises still larger progress in the near future.

Our jails are an inheritance from Great Britain; and the average American jail is practically that which John Howard found in Bedfordshire, England, when he entered upon his duty as sheriff of that county. The prisoners during the day are congregated in a common hall,—old and young, innocent and guilty,—and are thus permitted to contaminate each other at leisure.

In recent years, however, quite a number of jails have been constructed with a view to the cellular separation of prisoners both day and night; and in a few such separation is enforced. The pioneer jail of this kind, and the only one in which the absolute separation of prisoners has been maintained for more than twenty years, is the Suffolk County jail in Boston, and in construction and management it still remains one of the best in America.

The jails of Chester, Delaware, and several other counties in Pennsylvania are older than those in Boston, and have maintained the separation of prisoners longer, and in some respects they are superior to the Suffolk County jail; but they are convict prisons as well as jails, and to that extent are objectionable.

The principle of a separation of prisoners has also been extended to several Western States, and notably in Ohio, where nearly all new jails constructed during the past twenty years have been built on what is known as the central corridor, or "Ohio plan," which are so constructed as to permit the entire separation of prisoners. An act of the General Assembly, passed March 20, 1891 (O. L., vol. 80, p. 150), provides "that, wherever the construction of a county jail will permit, the strict separation of prisoners shall be maintained

at all times; and no prisoners therein awaiting trial shall be placed or allowed to remain in the same cell or room with any other prisoner." A similar law was enacted by the Minnesota Legislature of 1893.

Of Ohio jails the Franklin County jail at Columbus is probably the best in construction and administration. About one-fourth of the eighty-eight counties in Ohio now have jails upon the central corridor plan, although separation has not been as fully enforced as the law requires.

Still another plan for the separation of prisoners, worthy of attention, is in a jail recently constructed at Stockton, Cal.

In sanitary arrangements American jails, very generally, have been improved in the past twenty years.

United States Prisoners.

United States prisoners convicted of felonies under federal laws, for the most part, are confined in State penitentiaries under contract with State authorities. The only exceptions are those confined in Territorial prisons. According to the report of the attorney-general for the year ending June 30, 1892, there were 1,850 such prisoners, distributed among fifty-five different prisons; but nearly one-half of the whole number were in the three States of New York, Ohio, and Michigan.

For ten years past the National Prison Association has urged upon Congress the evil results of this system, and the necessity of federal prisons for federal prisoners; and finally, in 1891, by the Fifty-first Congress, (26 Stat., p. 839), a law was enacted authorizing the construction of three United States prisons, to be located one north and another south of the 39th degree of north latitude, and east of the Rocky Mountains, and the third west of the Rocky Mountains; but, unfortunately, no appropriations were made for them. The passage of this bill, however, is a step forward worthy of notice; and the result doubtless will be large progress in the near future.

During the past twenty years a number of Territorial jails have been built, and others have been improved. The jails in the District of Columbia and at Fort Smith, Indian Territory, are especially noteworthy.

That a great government like ours should convict its citizens of

offences against its laws, and then consign them to the tender mercies of prison authorities in whose appointment it has no voice, and over whom it has no control, is greatly to be deplored; and it is to be hoped that the authorization by Congress of federal prisons marks the beginning of a new and better era.

While we are unable to report any large progress on the part of the United States in dealing with civil offenders, it is far different with military offenders; and the creation and administration of the United States military prison at Fort Leavenworth, Kan., is in every way creditable. This prison was established in 1875, and its management from the beginning has been admirable. It has an average of about six hundred inmates, and in all of its departments it has kept abreast of the best intelligence of the world in prison methods.

Juvenile Reformatories.

Of all our institutions established for the care and treatment of the delinquent classes our juvenile reformatories are the most satisfactory, and will compare favorably with similar institutions in any other country.

At the National Prison Congress in Cincinnati in 1870 the total number of juvenile reformatories in the United States was reported as nineteen, with an average of inmates of less than 8,000. In 1880, by the census reports, the number of inmates in juvenile reformatories aggregated 11,468, and in 1890 14,846, and the number of reformatories had grown to over sixty.

In the construction, equipment, and management of these reformatories there has been large improvement in all directions, but probably the most important features of progress have been in the line of industrial training as an essential part of the school curriculum; and this tendency has been intensified year by year until quite a number of these institutions are now essentially schools of technology. One of the pioneers in this system of industrial training, and probably the best example of its development, is the Industrial School at Rochester, N.Y., heretofore referred to.

Recidivists.

In our methods of dealing with recidivists considerable progress has been made, and mainly within the last ten years. The first

attempt in America to deal with recidivists by legislation was in Louisiana, in 1870 (Sect. 974, Revised Statutes), by which judges were empowered "to sentence any person who may be convicted of a second or third offence to double or triple the penalty imposed by law; and for a fourth offence the person may be sentenced to perpetual imprisonment."

In Ohio a similar law was passed May 4, 1885 (O. L., vol. 82, p. 236), by which "every person who, after having been convicted of felony, shall be deemed and taken to be an habitual criminal, and on the expiration of the term for which he shall be so sentenced, he shall not be discharged from imprisonment, but shall be detained during his natural life, unless pardoned by the governor." This law has been enforced to some extent, but not so fully as it should be, for the reason that prosecuting attorneys have been derelict in indicting recidivists as such.

Laws somewhat similar have been passed in Massachusetts, and some other States with like results; but public sentiment generally has become more pronounced in favor of a more efficient enforcement of these laws.

There is also a growing sentiment in favor of cumulative sentences upon misdemeanants confined in workhouses. In Ohio this principle was fully adopted by the General Assembly in a bill passed April 14, 1893, in which it is provided that cumulative sentences shall be imposed upon misdemeanants sentenced to workhouses, and that the sentence for a second offence shall be double the first, and the third double the second; and that for the fourth offence the offender shall be adjudged an habitual offender, and shall be sentenced for a period not greater than three years, nor less than one year, unless pardoned by the governor.

Provision is also made for the classification and grading of prisoners, with promotion and degradation upon the Elmira pattern, and with the privilege of parole upon similar conditions.

Prisoners' Aid Associations.

The important work of aiding discharged prisoners to reinstate themselves in society as self-supporting citizens has made but little progress in the United States, and yet the first organized association for this purpose in the world was established in 1776 in Philadel-

phia; and, with the exception of a very few years during the Revolutionary War, "the Philadelphia Society for Alleviating the Miseries of Public Prisons" has maintained a continuous career of increasing usefulness to the present.

Other nations have followed the example of the Philadelphia society, at least to the extent of aiding discharged prisoners; and in England there are sixty-nine prisoners' aid associations, and all over Europe they are considered an important help in the reformation of criminals.

In the United States fourteen such associations have been organized during the century, and a majority of them during the past twenty years; and the most of them are still in existence. Of those still alive, but few are largely useful. Of these, Philadelphia, New York, Maryland, Detroit, Massachusetts, and Connecticut are the most noteworthy.

The tendency in America is to the parole system, an essential feature of which is that no prisoner can be paroled until a place is guaranteed to him where for at least six months he can earn a living by honest industry. Under the parole system, where release can only be attained by conduct which gives satisfactory assurance of reformation, no difficulty is found in securing remunerative employment upon discharge. In fact, at the Elmira Reformatory, where the parole system has been in operation for sixteen years, the demand for discharged prisoners is greater than the supply; for employers have found by experience that graduates of that institution are valuable acquisitions.

Conditional Liberation.

During the past twenty years, in dealing with the criminal classes in America there is probably no principle or practice of larger significance or more rapid growth than that of the conditional liberation of prisoners. It was alluded to as a promising theory at the Cincinnati Congress in 1870; but it was not put into operation in a prison for adults until 1877, when the Elmira Reformatory was opened. Since then, however, it has grown rapidly, and is fast becoming a *sine qua non* in American penology. There are two forms of conditional liberation now in operation. One is by parole under the indeterminate sentence, as at Elmira and in Ohio, and the

other is by conditional pardon, as in Minnesota and Indiana; but both are operated by progressive classification and the marking system, and, when properly administered, the results have been most gratifying. In the judgment of many of our best penologists, conditional liberation is the most important development of the period now under consideration, and especially in its connection with the indeterminate sentence, where a criminal goes to prison as an insane patient goes to an asylum, to be cured, and not to be liberated until he is cured, and then only released on probation, until experience shows him to be trustworthy.

The Identification of Criminals.

Considerable progress has been made in recent years in improved methods for the identification of criminals, and the adoption in 1887 by the Wardens' Association of the anthropometric system of Bertillon has secured the co-operation of prison managers in at least a dozen States and of the police authorities in the larger cities.

The central office for registration thus far has been in Chicago, but there is now a prospect that the Department of Justice at Washington will assume this work and maintain a bureau of registration for all the States. This is greatly to be desired, for without it the best results cannot be attained.

Conclusion.

In a *résumé* of progress for twenty years in so large a country as the United States, of course only a brief outline can be presented in the time allotted. However in the appendix herewith transmitted will be found reports from several States, in which details of progress are more fully presented, and which will help materially to a proper appreciation of the advancements made during the period under consideration.

Interrogatories were sent early in the year to governors of all the States and Territories, and responses have been received from many; but, except in States where Boards of Charities and Correction exist, the facts furnished have not been as satisfactory as could be desired. But still much of the information obtained is valuable, and has been abstracted and appended hereto.

APPENDIX TO THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PRISONS.

According to the census of 1890, the number of prisoners in the United States and their classification as to number and the general character of their offences was as follows: —

Classes.	Total.	Offences against —				On the High Seas.	Miscellaneous.
		The Government.	Society.	The Person.	Property.		
Adults, . . .	82,329	1,839	18,865	17,281	37,707	4	6,633
Male, . . .	75,924	1,823	15,033	16,511	36,382	4	6,171
Female, . .	6,405	16	3,832	770	1,325	–	462
Juveniles, . .	14,846	18	6,930	308	4,515	–	3,075
Male, . . .	11,535	18	5,222	291	4,169	–	1,835
Female, . .	3,311	–	1,708	17	346	–	1,240

Of the 82,326 criminals in custody in the United States 57,310 were pure whites, 24,277 negroes and colored, 407 Chinese, and 336 of all others.

Of the 57,310 white prisoners 15,932 were foreign born, 12,601 were born of foreign parents, and 2,881 had one parent foreign born, birth and parentage of all the others unknown. Thus, omitting the unknown, it appears that 28¼ per cent. of our criminals are foreign born; and, counting parentage, it seems that but 43¼ per cent. are of the native element, while nearly 57 per cent. are of the foreign.

In the census of 1870 the total number of persons reported in prison June 1 was 32,901; but no classification is given, except as to color and nativity.

Alabama.

In Alabama in 1890 there were 1,086 prisoners, 1,021 males and 65 females. Of these 300 were within the walls of the penitentiary at Wetumpka and 786 at the Pratt mines. In Alabama under the lease system progress has not been rapid: but it has been steady, especially during the past ten years.

In 1882 the authority of inspectors was enlarged and their duties increased. Frequent inspections were required. Provisions were made for the care of the sick and to prevent abuse and mistreatment. The greatest improvement of all and the best provision in the law was that allowing the governor to break up any contract without assigning any reason.

In 1884, under what is known as the "Coleman Law," the methods of administration were largely improved, and many abuses were abolished.

In 1885 a well-equipped general hospital for the chronic sick and those broken down in the mines was established, and has accommodations for about two hundred.

In 1888 two new prisons were erected, accommodating five hundred prisoners, and greatly improving their condition.

Since 1888 females and boys under fifteen years of age have been kept out of the mines, and are leased separately, and kept in comfortable prisons near Wetumpka.

Recently, however, by an act passed Feb. 14, 1893, a sweeping change has been authorized in the whole prison system of the State. Of these changes the most noticeable are: —

1. The entire abolition of the lease system upon the expiration of leases now in force.

2. The grading of prisons and the classification of prisoners, with promotion and degradation upon a definite system.

3. Cellular separation of all prisoners at night.

4. The establishment of a juvenile reformatory for minors under sixteen years of age.

5. Providing that the labor of all convicts of the first or better grade shall be directed to fitting the convict to maintain himself by honest industry after his discharge from imprisonment, as the main object of such labor and training.

6. The manufacture by convict labor of clothing and other arti-

cles required for the use of any State institutions, including food products from farms.

In short, Alabama, under this new law, comes to the front with penal legislation worthy of imitation by any State in the Union.

Arizona.

In the Territory of Arizona in 1870 there were 11 prisoners; in 1890, 144, all males except 1, in United States Penitentiary at Yuma, which has 210 cells.

No reply to inquiries made.

Arkansas.

Arkansas in 1870 had 362 prisoners. In 1890, 832: males, 821; females, 11. Prison at Little Rock.

For many years Arkansas has been under the lease system, but with gradual ameliorations, until in March, 1893, a bill was passed providing for its abolition.

In 1876 a new cell building was erected at the penitentiary at Little Rock, with 232 new cells; and the prison walls were extended so as to take in $6\frac{3}{4}$ acres of additional grounds.

In 1886 a new hospital and women's building, and a new shop building, were erected.

In 1889 a law was passed requiring the appointment of an inspector of convicts, with power to correct abuses.

The law referred to as recently enacted not only provides for the abolition of the lease system, but also inaugurates radical changes in prison management as follows: —

1. The Governor, Secretary of State, and Attorney-General are constituted a board of commissioners to carry into effect the provisions of the law.

2. The system of labor for convicts shall be under the contract or the State account system, or partly one and partly the other, as shall in the discretion of the Board of Commissioners be deemed best for the interest of the State; but no contract shall be let for any such convict labor if equally remunerative employment can be furnished by the State and worked on State account.

3. Such industries shall be established as will furnish the chari-

table institutions of the State with such articles as are necessary to be used in such institutions.

4. Coal lands, timber lands, and farm lands belonging to the State may be operated on the State account system.

5. The commissioners are given ample powers for carrying into effect the provisions of the act, and the prospect for a large advance in prison reform in all directions is promising.

California.

California has two State prisons,— San Quentin, with a capacity of 1,500, and Folsom, with a capacity of 700. In these prisons, by the census of 1890, were 2,115 prisoners,— 2,030 males and 85 females. The number of prisoners in 1870 was 1,574.

There are also two juvenile reformatories,— one at Whittier for boys and girls, occupied July 1, 1890, which now has 300 inmates, and one at Ione, Amador County, for boys only, not yet completed. Both of these reformatories are well planned and well built, and are a credit to the State.

Few changes have been made in the criminal code. A law passed, known as the Goodwin credit act, gives two months each year for the first two years, and four months for following years, and is a useful law, and has been found a valuable aid to discipline. Of late years all modes of harsh punishment have been given up. If deprivation of privileges fails, solitary confinement for a short time is found sufficient.

By act passed in 1890 executions of the death penalty are required to be at one of the State prisons.

The labor of prisoners is upon State account, and mainly in the manufacture of jute grain-bags.

Colorado.

Colorado has one penitentiary, at Cañon City, with a capacity of 818, and, according to the census of 1890, had 526 prisoners,— 522 men and 4 women. It also has a juvenile reformatory at Golden, called the State Industrial School, with 149 inmates in 1890,— 145 males and 4 females.

Colorado is a new State, and in 1870 only 19 prisoners are re-

ported. Practically, everything done in the last twenty years has been progress of some kind. The penitentiary is well ventilated and well kept, as prisons go; but there are no reformatory methods, except religious services on the Sabbath, and classification and industrial training are not in practice.

In the way of legislation the most important step forward in recent years is the establishment of a Board of State Charities and Correction, which is bringing to the State a knowledge of improved methods, and is having large influence for good in dealing with the criminal classes. Through the recommendations of this board a juvenile reformatory was authorized by the last legislature.

Connecticut.

Connecticut has a State prison at Wethersfield, with a capacity of 560. By the census of 1890 there were 340 prisoners,—334 males and 6 females. In 1870 there were 439. There is also a State Reform School at West Meriden for boys with 410 inmates, and an Industrial School for Girls at Middletown with 216 inmates.

During the past seven years the prison has been remodelled and greatly improved in structure and sanitary arrangements. A new chapel, hospital, and workshops have been added.

The pardoning power was formerly with the legislature; but in 1881 a Board of Pardons was created, which meets the first day of June and the first day of September, to consider applications. By recent enactment all executions of the death penalty hereafter will be at the Wethersfield prison.

Delaware.

Delaware has no convict prisons; and criminals sentenced to imprisonment are confined in county jails, of which there are three, —one in each county. Delaware is the only State in the Union which retains the whipping-post and pillory as a form of punishment. These punishments are inflicted in public. No progress is reported for twenty years. For juvenile delinquents, however, the Ferris Industrial School at Wilmington provides for 44 inmates, and has a very good record.

The District of Columbia.

The District of Columbia has no convict prisons, and felons are sent with other United States prisoners to the Albany penitentiary in New York. Misdemeanants are confined in the Washington jail and the Boys' Reform School.

The progress of the past twenty years and present conditions are as follows: —

1. Several years ago Congress passed a law providing for a Girls' Reform School, and last session made an appropriation for buildings, but said school is not yet in operation.

2. Large improvements have been made in the Boys' Reform School since 1870 by the erection of family buildings and other buildings, at a cost of about $150,000. The United States jail has been enlarged for accommodation of increasing numbers of prisoners,— natural from growth of the city.

Reform School.

Year.	*Average.*	*Admitted.*	*Discharged.*
1872,	100	142	58
1892,	201	116	114

Average increasing with population.

Jail.

Year.	*Average.*	*Admitted.*	*Discharged.*
1872,	125	1,345	1,204
1892,	275	2,500	2,428

Average between a gradual increase, with increase of population.

The worst feature of the jail is the fact that indolence is made obligatory by law,— a condition which is terribly hard both upon the inmates and their families, not to mention the industrious portion of the community called on to support in idleness those who have in one way or another preyed on society. By a fatuity which seems quite incomprehensible, some workingmen insist that criminals shall not be employed. They assume that there is only a definite amount of remunerative labor in the country, and that, if one person has it, another must go without: whereas the fact is that the amount of potential work is indefinite and immeasurable, and the more work any man does the more of it there is for all others.

When men are forbidden to work for the support of their families during incarceration, it throws upon society a double burden. Major Burke, of Washington, believes that all imprisoned persons should be compelled to work continuously, and that the money which they earn should, after paying for their own support in jail, be sent to their families, and, if they have no families, that it should be allowed to accumulate, and be paid to them in a lump sum at the expiration of their term of imprisonment. Prisoners all wish to work, and the prohibition of useful activity has a most deleterious effect both on their behavior and their health. If every man, at the end of his sentence, could return to a family whom he had continuously assisted to support or could receive from the warden at the gate a sum of money which he himself had earned, the probability of an offender becoming confirmed in making war upon his fellow-men would be greatly diminished.

Another feature of the district jail that is objectionable is its being made a place of detention for juvenile offenders destined for the orphan asylum or the reform school. It is a serious injury to a boy to be lodged in the common jail, awaiting trial. Some of these are only seven or eight years old, and are arrested for petit larceny, street brawls, throwing stones, and other offences which would attract no attention in the farming districts of the land. I saw a boy of ten in this jail committed for eating a cooky which a companion had snatched from a sidewalk stand. In a cell near by a lad of eleven, decently dressed, climbed up on the door, and looked out as I went by. "Well, what are you here for?" I asked. "I'm a house-breaker," he answered with an air of importance.

Two things are gravely needed here: —

1. Steady work for all prisoners.

2. Some shelter for juvenile offenders at a distance, and a provision that they shall not be lodged in the jail even temporarily.

The management of the jail and the treatment of prisoners seem to be humane and effective. W. A. CROFFUT.

FLORIDA.

Florida has no penitentiary. All the prisoners are leased, and are located in five different camps. The census of 1890 shows 374 prisoners, only 12 of whom are females. No juvenile reformatory, and no answers returned to interrogatories.

Georgia.

Georgia has no penitentiary. All convicts are leased out for twenty years, beginning April 1, 1879, and ending April 1, 1899, the State receiving $25,000 per annum net. The men are worked in mines, building railroads, sawing lumber, and in farming, and are scattered all over the State in camps.

The numbers reported biennially are: Oct. 1, 1886, 1,526; Oct. 1, 1888, 1,537; Oct. 1, 1890, 1,694; Oct. 1, 1892, 1,940; and Feb. 23, 1893, 2,040. Of these convicts, 90 per cent. are negroes.

There has been no material change in the lease system or in the criminal code during the past twenty years, and there is no prospect of any during the continuance of existing leases. In regard to juvenile offenders, however, quite an advance has been made; and juvenile reformatories have been established in all the larger cities, but not by the State.

Idaho.

Idaho was admitted as a State July 3, 1890, and inherited the United States Territorial penitentiary at Boisé City, with a capacity for 84 prisoners. In 1870 it had 28 prisoners; in 1890, 102,— all males.

No report received.

Illinois.

Illinois has two penitentiaries: one at Joliet, with 900 cells, with 1,386 prisoners,— 1,341 males and 45 females,— according to the census of 1890; and one at Chester with 671 prisoners,— all males.

In 1870 the penitentiary population of Illinois was 1 in 2,073 of the total population of the State, and in 1890 it was 1 in 1,883.

The Illinois southern penitentiary at Chester was erected by act passed in 1887; and the first convicts were transferred from Joliet in March, 1878.

No new juvenile reformatory has been erected since 1870; but in 1891 the legislature added to the State Reform School a department for adult first offenders, and changed the name of the institution to the State Reformatory. The act provided for the indeterminate sentence, the mark system, and liberation on parole.

The principal change in the penal code of Illinois in recent years was the adoption in 1885 of a constitutional amendment: "That hereafter it shall be unlawful for the commissioners of any penitentiary or reformatory institution in the State of Illinois to let or contract to any person or persons or corporations the labor of any convict confined within said institution."

The adoption of the new constitution in 1870 was followed by a general revision of the statutes, including the criminal code. The subsequent changes have been for the most part immaterial,—in 1883 an act making a second conviction for burglary, grand larceny, horse-stealing, robbery, or counterfeiting punishable by imprisonment for the full maximum term provided by law for such crime, and convictions subsequent to the second punishable by fifteen years. But the act is practically a dead letter, since the former convictions are rarely set forth in the indictment.

In 1889 the Bertillon system of identification of convicts was authorized to be adopted by State penitentiaries.

At Pontiac, Ill., there is a State Reform School for Boys with 383 inmates, according to the census of 1890.

Indiana.

Indiana has two penitentiaries, one at Michigan City, with 760 cells and a prison population of 756 in 1890, and one in Jeffersonville, with a population of 590, making a total of 1,346. The total reported in 1870 was 907.

The Indiana Reformatory Institution for Women and Girls (now called the Reform School for Girls and Women's Prison) was erected by act of the legislature in 1869, but was not completed until 1873. The first inmates were transfers from the State prison south Oct. 8, 1873. This institution receives adults as well as minors; but from the beginning they have been kept entirely separate, the inmates never being in the same room except for religious exercises. From the first the officers of this joint institution were women; but in 1877 the law was changed as to the board of directors, since which date the institution has been under the exclusive control and management of women trustees.

A Reform School for Boys is located at Plainfield, with 471 inmates in 1890 and an average of 467 in 1892. This institution has in-

creased in size and improved in management, especially during the past thirteen years. The governors of Indiana, without any special warrant of law, have adopted a form of parole by conditional pardon; but its administration has not been as systematic as it should be, and the results have not been so satisfactory as in some other States. In both penitentiaries the contract system of labor prevails, and both prisons are self-supporting.

At the southern prison the lock step, shorn heads and faces, and the rule of absolute silence has been abolished. The men march in twos, they wear their hair and beards as they choose, and from locking up till one hour later they may sing, talk, or play on instruments in their cells.

Some relaxations of strict discipline have been allowed at the northern prison. The men wear a mustache, and are allowed the "free hour"; but the lock step is still practised. No evil results have followed this milder rule.

Iowa.

Iowa has two penitentiaries, one at Fort Madison, with a prison population of 413, all males, and one at Anamosa, with 210, none of whom were women.

There are also two institutions for juvenile delinquents, the Industrial School for Boys at Eldora, with 392 inmates, and the Industrial School for Girls at Mitchellville, with 135 inmates.

In the census of 1870 the total number of convicts reported was 397. Other items worthy of notice are: —

1. One new State prison has been erected since 1870, being the second possessed by the State, and commenced in 1872. The Reform School for Boys was established in 1868, and is now called the Iowa Industrial School. The Industrial School for Girls was established about 1878.

2. The State in the past twenty years has erected buildings at both the reformatory schools, and has been gradually enlarging the new prison at Anamosa.

3. Capital punishment was abolished by act of the General Assembly in 1872. It was, however, restored (hanging) by the General Assembly of 1878. Convict labor to contractors within the prison is allowed by law at the penitentiary at Fort Madison. It is not

allowed at the penitentiary at Anamosa, where, however, the convicts are employed in quarrying and dressing stone for the new buildings of that institution and in the erection of the same. There has been no change in the matter of granting pardons, which is vested in the governor.

4. There has been but little or no increase of crime, according to the prison records, from 1878 to 1892.

Kansas.

Kansas has a penitentiary at Lansing with 918 prisoners, of whom 14 were women. In 1870 there were 320 inmates.

For juvenile delinquents it has a Reform School for Boys at North Topeka, with 173 inmates, and a State Industrial School for Girls, with 54 inmates. No report received.

Kentucky.

Kentucky has a State penitentiary at Frankfort, with a prison population in 1890 of 800, of whom 47 were women, also a branch penitentiary at Eddyville, with 70 inmates and 365 in camps, making the total number of convicts for the State 1,235.

In response to inquiries made Governor Brown replies as follows:

1. A branch penitentiary was opened at Eddyville, Lyon County, Ky., about two years ago. It has cost about $500,000, but is not yet completed.

2. During the past ten years the management of the prisons has been taken out of the hands of a keeper of the penitentiary elected by the legislature, and placed in the hands of a board consisting of the Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Attorney-General, and Auditor, who have general control of the penitentiaries, and who appoint the wardens and other officials of the institutions.

3. The only change made in the statute relative to capital punishment is one providing that executions shall be made within an enclosure in the presence of not exceeding fifty persons. By the provisions of the new constitution adopted last year, "Persons convicted of felony and sentenced to confinement in the penitentiary shall be confined at labor within the walls of the penitentiary; and the General Assembly shall not have the power to authorize employ-

ment of convicts elsewhere, except upon the public works of the commonwealth of Kentucky, or when, during pestilence or in case of the destruction of the prison buildings, they cannot be confined in the penitentiary."

"The commonwealth shall maintain control of the discipline, and provide for all supplies and for the sanitary conditions of the convicts; and the labor only of convicts may be leased."

However, for the past two years the convicts have not been permitted to work outside of the walls. For several years previous to that, the contractors had used the labor of the convicts in the construction of railroads, and for a short time in the coal mines, the latter attempt being unsuccessful because of the unfriendly attitude of the home miners. The branch prison was also constructed mainly by convict labor.

4. There is no juvenile reformatory, all criminals being sent to the two penitentiaries, though care is taken to separate the classes as well as may be.

The city of Louisville for many years has maintained an excellent juvenile reformatory, known as the Louisville Industrial School of Reform.

Louisiana.

Louisiana has a prison at Baton Rouge, with 70 prisoners in 1890; but outside in camps, under the lease system, there were 762.

The census of 1870 reports 845 prisoners. In New Orleans there is a Boys' House of Refuge, with 86 inmates in 1890. No report of existing conditions received.

Maine.

The Maine State prison at Manchester in 1890 had a prison population of 169, 4 of whom were women. Since 1870 there has been an addition made to the buildings (in 1877), increasing the capacity about one-third.

The death penalty, or a punishment for murder in the first degree, was abolished in 1887.

The most important legislation for the regulation of convict labor was a law passed in 1887 to the effect "that not more than twenty per cent. of the male convicts in the State prison shall be employed

in any one industry or in the manufacture of any one kind of goods." Convicts have been worked in this State on the State account system since 1870.

The average prison population reported for 1892 is 150.

Maryland.

The Maryland penitentiary, located at Baltimore, reports for 1890 an aggregate of 680 prisoners; the House of Refuge at Baltimore, 223 boys; the Female House of Refuge at Baltimore, 79 girls; the House of Reformation for colored boys, Cheltenham, 271; Industrial Home for colored girls, 99; St. Mary's Industrial School, Carroll, 389.

The Maryland House of Correction was opened in 1879, and was built by the State at a cost of $250,000, and reports an average population for 1892 of 274.

The General Assembly has appropriated $250,000 for extending and enlarging the grounds and buildings of the penitentiary. The work is now in progress, and $90,000 has already been expended in these improvements.

The Bertillon system for the identification of criminals was put in operation Aug. 1, 1892, by act of the General Assembly.

An act of the legislature requiring the payment of the magistrates in Baltimore by salaries instead of by fees has proved very valuable, and has largely reduced the number of commitments.

Massachusetts.

The correctional institutions for Massachusetts are: the State prison, at Charlestown; the reformatory, at Warnerville; the Lyman School, for boys, at Westboro; House of Reformation, at Deer Island; Industrial School, at Lawrence; Plummer Farm School, Salem; Truant Reform School, Worcester; House of Employment and Reformatory of Juvenile Offenders, Lowell; Truant School, Springfield; Truant School, Deer Island; Industrial School for Girls, Lancaster; and the Reformatory Prison for Women, at South Framingham.

The commitments and discharges of prisoners for 1870 and 1892 are reported as follows: —

	Jails and Houses of Correction.	State Prison.	Reformatory Prison for Women.	Massachusetts Reformatory.	Boston House of Industry.	State Farm.	Total.	Reform School for Boys.	Industrial School for Girls.	Total.
Admitted in 1870, . .	13,297	181	–	–	3,303	318	16,999	179	83	262
Discharged in 1870, . .	13.106	211	–	–	3,267	237	16,821	213	79	292
Admitted in 1892, . .	18,289	203	263	746	4,834	470	24,805	155	50	205
Discharged in 1892, . .	18,209	135	209	672	4,731	357	24,313	136	59	195

These figures include all persons committed to await trial, all persons held as witnesses, etc.

The Massachusetts Reformatory was opened at Concord in December, 1884, in the buildings that were completed in 1878 for a State prison. When the reformatory was established, the State prison was returned to the old buildings in Charlestown, where it has been from 1805 to 1878.

There have been no additions to the prison buildings that are worthy of notice. In 1879 the Board of State Prison Inspectors was abolished, also the Board of Commissioners of Prisons, which had the inspection of the county prisons, and a new board, to have the powers of these two old boards, was created. This is the present Board of Commissioners of Prisons, consisting of five persons, who have the supervision of the State institutions and the inspection of all the county prisons. They have the power to transfer from one prison to another, and can release from the reformatories on permit, or probation, as it is generally called. The effect of this change cannot be definitely answered, but it may be stated generally that the county prisons are cleaner and better ventilated than they were before the State Board had the inspection of them.

In 1887 contract labor in the prisons was prohibited, and all prisoners are now employed upon the State account plan or under the piece-price system. There has been no change in the law as to the granting of pardons.

I do not think there is much novelty in any of our prison buildings; but the Reformatory Prison for Women is somewhat peculiar

in its construction, having been designed especially for the purpose to which it is applied. The features of the prison that perhaps are most noticeable are the separate work-rooms, the recreation-rooms, the dining-rooms for the different grades, the large and well-lighted rooms, etc. The government, regulation of the industries, and financial management of our prisons are substantially like the systems of other States.

The establishment of the Reformatory Prison for Women, and of the Massachusetts Reformatory, have been the striking events in the progress of prison reform in Massachusetts in the last twenty years. The adoption of the graded system in the reformatories, and the application of the indeterminate sentence to the Massachusetts Reformatory, have been important factors in establishing a wise and just system of dealing with criminals. In 1891 the legislature passed an act providing for the appointment of a probation officer in each of the lower courts. We regard this as a long step in the right direction; and, when some of the absurdities that were afterward connected with this law have been brushed away, we hope to introduce a method of dealing with young first offenders that will obviate the necessity of sending them to prison. It may be proper to say that the law of 1891 only extended and made practicable throughout the State a work that had been in operation some time in Boston and a few other cities. There is one important feature, however, that was introduced by the law of 1891; and that is the appointment of the probation officer by the court, thus removing him from all political influence.

GEO. G. PETTIGROVE,
Secretary Board of Prison Commissioners.

MICHIGAN.

Michigan has a penitentiary at Jackson, with 738 prisoners in 1890; a reformatory at Ionia, with 370 prisoners; a State Reform School at Lansing with 466 inmates; and a State Industrial School for Girls at Adrian, with 230 inmates.

The following comprehensive report is made by the secretary of the State Board of Charities: —

1. In 1873, at the earnest recommendation of Governor John J. Bagley, the legislature provided for, and there was appointed a com-

mission, to select and secure to the State a site for a State House of Correction and Reformatory, and to provide plans and estimates of the cost of the necessary buildings. In 1875 the legislature appropriated the necessary funds to build, and provided for the construction of the prison. In 1877 the legislature enacted a law to regulate and govern the State House of Correction and Reformatory; and on the 31st of May, 1877, the board of managers, provided by such law, held its first meeting. The institution was opened for prisoners Aug. 15, 1877. Governor Bagley's idea was to provide an intermediate prison; and the law of 1887 provided that male prisoners convicted of felony, between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five years, should be the only prisoners of such class, sentenced to such institution. Subsequent laws have done away the limit of age.

In 1879 the legislature provided for an Industrial Home for Girls. Girls over seven years and under twenty years, convicted of any offence not punishable by imprisonment for life, it was provided should be sentenced to the Home. The provision relating to age has been since changed to girls over ten years and under seventeen years. In 1881, August 3, the first girl was received into the institution.

In 1885 provision was made for securing a site for and the erection of a State House of Correction and Branch Prison in the Upper Peninsula. In 1887 a law providing for its regulation and government was enacted, in which law it was provided that all persons duly convicted could be sentenced to this new prison. The effort was one simply to secure more prison room, having particularly in view the convenience of the Upper Peninsula. In 1889, June 29, the first prisoners (4) were received at this institution.

2. In 1877 provision was made for the transfer of prisoners from the State prison to the State House of Correction and Reformatory, or *vice versa*, in the discretion of the joint boards of such institutions. In 1881 the library which had been established was recognized, and provision made for its maintenance. In 1883 provision was made for an asylum for insane criminals. On the opening of such institution, the insane confined in the asylum portion of the State prison were transferred to the Asylum for Insane Criminals; and hereafter any convict in any of our prisons, when adjudged insane, shall forthwith be transferred to such institution. In 1887 an appropriation was made for an addition to the State prison, and the construction of a cell block, to contain one hundred and fifty cells.

3. In 1885 a State Board of Pardons was provided for. The law provided that such board should be simply "advisory." Its duty was to investigate cases seeking pardon, report the results of such investigation to the governor with recommendations, as in the judgment of such board seemed expedient, after which the governor acted in the case at his own discretion.

4. The law substituting solitary imprisonment for life for the death penalty went into effect March 1, 1847. The following table shows that the number of life solitary commitments have largely decreased in proportion to the increase of population since the abolishment of capital punishment. The percentage of life solitary to the total commitments and the proportion of life solitary to total commitments has greatly diminished.

STATEMENT OF TOTAL COMMITMENTS OF FELONS TO PRISON, TOTAL LIFE SOLITARY COMMITMENTS, PER CENT. OF LIFE SOLITARY TO WHOLE NUMBER, AND COMPARISON OF NUMBER OF LIFE SOLITARY COMMITMENTS TO WHOLE NUMBER.

Year.	Jackson.	Ionia.	Total.	Life Solitary.	Per Cent.	Life Solitary.	Population.
1843–58	921	–	921	23	2.71	37	1850,— 397,654
1858–68	1,854	–	1,854	33	1.78	56	– –
1868–78	2,996	–	2,996	26	0.86	115	– –
1878–88	3,108	6,316	9,424	46	0.49	205	1890,— 2,095,889

5. The plan of architectural construction of our prisons has made great advance. In the two newer prisons well-ventilated cells and corridors have superseded the narrow, cramped quarters of our old State prison. State account and piece-price systems of labor are gradually finding place in the industries of our penitentiaries. Chapels and school-rooms have come into existence within the past twenty years, and the moral and mental condition of convicts is studied and ministered to. The position of agent or warden has advanced from that of a boss turnkey to a worthy and honored profession.

6. In 1873 the county agency system for care of juvenile offenders was provided by law. In general, this law provides for the ap-

pointment, by the governor, of an agent in each county of the State. Whenever a complaint is made against a boy under sixteen years of age or a girl under seventeen years of age, it shall be the duty of the court, before proceeding to hear or determine the case, to notify the county agent of the county of the pendency of such complaint. The agent is required to make a thorough investigation of the case immediately, report the facts and circumstances to the courts, who shall advise and consult with the agent, and determine and deal with the case accordingly. In 1892 896 arrests were reported by such agents in Michigan. Of this number there were committed to reformatories, 334; discharged, 349; sentence suspended, 166; balance fined. It is also a duty of the county agent to approve the homes or persons with whom inmates of the reformatories are placed on ticket-of-leave, and to supervise them in such homes.

7. The Home of Industry for Discharged Prisoners, Detroit, was founded by Mrs. A. L. D'Arcambal on March 4, 1888. Its object is to furnish a temporary home and employment for all discharged prisoners of the State of Michigan. It furnishes food and clothing to its inmates. It surrounds them with a cheerful, healthy, and moral atmosphere to enable them to regain their lost manhood. It gives its inmates work to stimulate them to useful lives and good citizenship.

Number of men in Home June 1, 1891,	11	
Number received during the year,	71	
		82
Number found employment by the Home,	21	
Number found employment themselves,	19	
Number discharged for cause,	8	
Number left themselves,	18	
Number sent to friends by ticket,	6	
Number sent to hospital,	2	
Number in Home June 1, 1892,	8	
		82

Minnesota.

Minnesota has a State prison at Stillwater, a reformatory for adults at St. Cloud, and a State Reform School at Red Wing, of which the following admirable report of progress is made by the governor.

The Minnesota State Reformatory was established by the legislature in 1887. It was opened in October, 1889, with 75 prisoners,

transferred from the State prison. It has now (Jan. 31, 1893) 144 inmates. About 200 inmates have been paroled since the opening of the institution; and the superintendent reports that 80 per cent. of these inmates are doing well,—*i.e.*, have complied with the condition of their parole. This reformatory is modelled after the reformatory at Elmira, N.Y. There is a granite quarry on the prison grounds, and the chief employment thus far has been quarrying and cutting granite. By an act of the last legislature the board of managers were prohibited from employing more than one-third of the inmates in quarrying granite for the market, and the principal employment of the inmates at present is work upon new buildings and building material for the institution. A limited number of inmates is employed at farm work. The State reformatory buildings are similar in plan to the new portion of the Western Pennsylvania penitentiary. It is expected that these buildings, when completed, will rank with the best.

The Minnesota State prison has been enlarged from a capacity of 78 prisoners in 1870 to a capacity of 615 prisoners. It is not expected that this prison will ever be enlarged beyond its present capacity. At the present time it contains only 318 prisoners, leaving nearly 300 empty cells.

The State Reform School has been removed from St. Paul to Red Wing, where a beautiful location has been secured, overlooking the Mississippi River. On this site new buildings have been erected at a cost of $325,000. These consist of a main building, with a capacity of 100 boys; three cottages for boys, with a capacity of 50 each; and a cottage for girls, with a capacity of 75. It is expected that additional cottages will be erected as needed.

Our State prison law was recodified in 1889, enlarging the powers and responsibilities of the warden. In 1874 a law was passed giving each convict his earnings under the contract (45 cents per day) for each day's good time. Under that law each convict received about $2.70 per month. When the contract system was abolished in 1887, this provision lapsed; but in 1889 the legislature provided for the payment to each convict, from the current expense fund, an average of 10 cents for each working day, on condition of good conduct. This allowance is graded from 8 to 12 cents each day, not according to the value of the work, but according to the industry and good will shown by the convict.

The contract system, which had prevailed for many years in the Minnesota State prison, was abolished by the legislature of 1887; but in 1889 the legislature restored the contract system for not exceeding one-half of the convicts, provided that the other half must be worked on State account.

The law establishing the State Reformatory provides for the parole system, and also for the transfer of first offenders from the State prison to the reformatory and their parole therefrom. Only 75 prisoners have been transferred from the prison to the reformatory on account of a lack of accommodations at the reformatory.

An act of the legislature, just adjourned, requires separation of each prisoner where the construction of the jail will admit. It requires separation of women, children, and insane persons under all circumstances. It requires also the separation of sentenced prisoners from prisoners held for trial whenever practicable, with restricted diet for sentenced prisoners. The law also provides for a matron for each county jail, to be paid according to the service rendered.

The legislature also passed a bill establishing the parole system in the State prison. For many years our convicts have received about 10 cents per day from the earnings of the prison; but hereafter third grade convicts will receive nothing, while first and second grade convicts will receive from 8 to 12 cents per day. When a convict is released, the warden is authorized to withhold a portion of his money for a limited time.

Governor William R. Merriam in 1892 established a conditional pardon system on recommendation of the State Board of Corrections and Charities. It is, in fact, a parole system, and has operated thus far very well. This conditional pardon system is not based on any existing legislation, but on the general power of the governor to issue pardons and commutation.

The order establishing this system required the board of managers to institute a system of grades and marks; and convicts, in order to be eligible for a conditional pardon, must be certified by the warden and the board of managers as being, in their judgment, fit to go at large, and likely to lead an honorable life. It must be certified also that employment has been obtained for such convict with some responsible citizen, and a State agent has been appointed to aid in securing such employment.

The legislature of 1889 enacted a law providing that all executions should take place before the hour of sunrise, in an enclosure

higher than the gallows; that, besides the sheriff and his assistants, not more than ten persons should be present, no one of whom should be a newspaper representative; and that "no account of the details of such execution, except the statement of the fact that such convict was on the day in question duly executed according to law, shall be published in any newspaper." This law has been bitterly opposed by the newspapers, and has been partially disregarded by them.

The following statement shows the ratio of inmates of correctional institutions for 1870. It will be seen that the highest ratio of State prison convicts was reached in 1877, when we had 352 convicts, and in 1885, when we had 353 convicts for each million inhabitants. The highest ratio of reform school inmates was reached in 1873, when we had 225 inmates of the State Reform School for each million inhabitants.

NUMBER OF INMATES OF MINNESOTA CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS OUT OF EACH MILLION INHABITANTS AT THE CLOSE OF THE FISCAL YEAR.

Year.	Estimated Population of the State.	State Prison Convicts.		Inmates of the State Reform School.		Inmates of County Jails.	
		Number.	Ratio.	Number.	Ratio.	Number.	Ratio.
1870, .	439,706	71	161	82	187	–	–
1871, .	470,000	87	185	111	236	–	–
1872, .	502,000	90	179	106	211	–	–
1873, .	533,000	103	193	120	225	–	–
1874, .	565,000	134	237	108	191	–	–
1875, .	597,400	146	244	110	184	–	–
1876, .	632,000	1,666	263	106	166	–	–
1877, .	667,000	235	352	104	156	–	–
1878, .	703,000	218	310	108	154	–	–
1879, .	740,000	249	336	113	153	–	–
1880, .	780,773	254	325	119	152	–	–
1881, .	830,000	247	298	121	146	–	–
1882, .	900,000	279	310	123	137	–	–
1883, .	960,000	301	336	125	130	–	–
1884, .	1,040,000	356	342	129	124	–	–
1885, .	1,117,798	395	353	155	139	218	195
1886, .	1,155,000	387	335	191	165	–	–
1887, .	1,190,000	398	335	221	186	–	–
1888, .	1,225,000	426	348	238	194	185	149
1889, .	1,263,000	*424	*336	281	223	188	149
1890, .	1,301,826	433	333	275	211	197	151
1891, .	1,335,000	443	332	292	219	182	134
1892, .	1,370,000	451	329	287	209	204	150
1890, .	The United States, .		722	–	328	–	312
1890, .	North Central States,		491	–	250	–	189

*Including State Reformatory opened in 1889.

The total number of prisoners of all sorts in the State prison, reformatory, city workhouses, county jails, and city or village lockups at the dates named was as follows: —

December 31.	Total Number of Prisoners.	Ratio.
1885,	836	748
1888,	951	776
1889,	1,023	810
1890,	914	702
1891,	965	723
1892,	1,025	748

Architectural Construction.— The most noted feature of the architectural construction of our prisons is the cell-room at the St. Cloud Reformatory. The cells are 6 × 8 feet in size; and the entire front of each cell is composed of open lattice-work, admitting light and air freely. The cell-room is lighted by very large windows extending to the roof, so that each cell is provided with light, the upper tier as well as those below.

Organization.— Under our State prison law the warden is appointed by the board of managers, and holds office subject to their pleasure. The two chaplains are appointed by the board of managers; but all other officers are appointed by the warden, subject to the approval of the board of managers, but are removable at the pleasure of the warden. This law operates to take the prison out of politics, and to concentrate responsibilities in the warden.

Government. Each of our correctional institutions is governed by an independent board of managers appointed by the governor of the State. The advisability of consolidating these boards has been discussed, but the plan has not yet found favor.

Discipline.— In the State Reformatory at St. Cloud the parole system with grades and marks is established by law. In the State prison the same thing has been accomplished without legislation by the order of the governor. Conditional pardons, based upon the governor's prerogative, take the place of paroles; and thus far the plan has worked to entire satisfaction. It is expected, however, that

legislation will eventually be provided to establish the system permanently. By the Minnesota law an annual appropriation is made as part of the current expense fund, from which a cash allowance is made to each convict of 8 to 12 cents for each working day, called the "good conduct fund." For serious infraction of the rules the convicts are fined 50 cents per day. This provision greatly simplifies the discipline of the prison. The law provides that the allowance shall be graded from 8 to 12 cents per day, the difference being based, not upon the value of the work performed, but upon the industry and good will of the prisoner.

Industries.— At the Minnesota State prison the manufacture of binding twine is carried on on State account. An excellent article of hemp binding twine is manufactured and sold to the farmers at net cost, last year 9 cents per pound. This industry is regarded with favor by the farmers, but is undesirable from a reformatory point of view. Half of the convicts are employed on the contract system in the manufactory of threshers and portable engines. This manufactory forms an excellent prison industry, for the reason that it gives diversity of employment and divides competition equitably among the leading manufactories. There is a machine shop, blacksmith shop, foundry, wagon shop, soft wood shop, paint shop, etc.

Financial Management.— By the Minnesota law all receipts from labor of convicts or sales of products are immediately reappropriated for the use of the prison. Reappropriations from labor are applied to current expenses, and receipts from sale of products form a revolving fund for maintaining the State account system.

The Minnesota State prison was the first public institution of the Territory of Minnesota. It was organized in 1851; and, when the State was organized in 1860, there were only ten convicts. The very slow growth of our prison population is due to the excellent character of our foreign immigration. The State Reform School was organized in 1866, and the State Reformatory was organized in 1887.

KNUTE NELSON, *Governor.*

MISSISSIPPI.

Mississippi has just adopted the necessary legislation to put an end to the lease system, but as yet has no prisons completed; but a great advance is in progress. The following report of the date of Feb. 13, 1893, is from the Governor of the State:—

1. Since 1870 the crime of rape has been made capital, and a further change in the law, which gives to the jury in all capital cases the power to fix the penalty at imprisonment in the penitentiary for life; but, unless the jury agree to this, the criminal is executed by hanging. A new constitution, adopted in 1890, forbids the leasing of the convicts after the 1st of January, 1895. After that date convicts are to be worked entirely under State supervision, but the legislature has not yet done anything to carry out this provision of the constitution. No change in the matter of granting of pardons or commutations, except that the constitution of 1890 forbids the granting of a pardon until the petition therefor, setting forth the reasons why the pardon should be granted, shall have been published for thirty days in a newspaper in the county where the crime was committed. The crime of rape was made capital because of the frequency of its commission after the abolition of slavery, and it was believed it would tend to stop lynching for that crime. We have but one degree of murder; and, as there is sometimes a feature in a case of murder which appeals to the sensibilities of the jury, and yet murder, it was thought proper to give the jury this power.

There have been many complaints of the treatment of convicts by lessees, and a general and growing prejudice against the lease system, which finally culminated in its abolition. The requirement to publish petitions for pardons grew out of an idea that the power was sometimes too freely exercised, and that the publication would be notice to any who might oppose a pardon, and give an opportunity for counter petitions or protests against such pardon.

2. The criminal population of 1870 was about 800. It increased to about 1,000 from 1870 to 1876, and since that time it has gradually declined to about 600, the present population of our State prison. We have no juvenile reformatory.

3. We formerly had a superintendent of the penitentiary who had control of the prison and prisoners; but it is now under the management of a board of control consisting of three Railroad Commissioners, the Governor, and Attorney-General, also a warden, who has immediate supervision over the prison and prisoners, the financial management, etc., under the board of control.

J. M. Stone, *Governor of Mississippi.*

Missouri.

Missouri has a penitentiary at Jefferson City, with a prison population in 1890 of 1,691, of whom 36 were women.

Missouri has a Reform School for Boys at Boonville, with 95 inmates, and a State Industrial School for Girls at Chillicothe, with 9 inmates in 1890.

At St. Louis there is a House of Refuge with 184 boys and 72 girls.

No report received.

Montana.

There is but one State prison in Montana, situated at Deer Lodge. This prison has been in operation since 1871. At that time the north wing of what is now the Montana State prison was built by the federal government, and was given to the State of Montana upon its admission to the Union in 1889.

At the close of the fiscal year in 1872 there were 22 prisoners, and at the close of the fiscal year in 1892 there were 343.

March 9, 1891, the prisoners were leased to Messrs. Conley & McTague at the rate of 70 cents per capita per day for the first one hundred, and 65 cents per day for all over that number, the lessees to care and provide for the prisoners.

A Board of Pardons is constituted, consisting of the Secretary of State, the Attorney-General, and State Auditor. Bills are pending in the legislature to establish a juvenile reformatory and to enlarge the penitentiary, but notice of final action has not been received.

Nebraska.

Nebraska has one penitentiary at Hyersville, with a prison population in 1890 of 391, 5 of whom were women.

The State Industrial School for juvenile delinquents is at Kearney, with 166 boys and 71 girls in 1890.

No response to inquiries.

New Hampshire.

New Hampshire has a State prison at Concord, with 115 inmates, and a State Reform School at Manchester, with 90 boys and 12 girls.

No response to inquiries.

New Jersey.

New Jersey has three prisons: the State prison at Trenton, with 1,044 in 1890, of whom 43 were women; the Essex County penitentiary at Caldwell, with 185, of whom 10 were women; and the Hudson County penitentiary at Jersey City, with 228, of whom 34 were women. There is also a State Reform School at Jamesburg, with 361 boys; the Newark City Home at Verona, with 166 boys and 31 girls; and the State Industrial School for Girls at Trenton, with 50 inmates.

The New Jersey State prison was built in 1797, and was known as the "Penitentiary House." Over the entrance of this original building appears the following inscription: —

Labor. Silence. Penitence.

The Penitentiary House.

Erected By Legislative Authority.

Richard Howell, Governor.

In the XXII Year of American Independence,

MDCCXCVII.

That those who are feared for their crimes may learn to fear the laws and be useful.

Hic Labor Hoc Opus.

In 1872 the east wing, with 176 cells, was completed. In 1878 the north hall, with 272 cells, was completed. Many improvements have been made in the eastern structure, new shops have been built, new arrangements for heating and lighting, and in many ways the prison has been bettered.

In 1876 the management was transferred from the State officers to a board of five inspectors appointed by the governor. In 1884 contract labor was prohibited in all "jails, penitentiaries, and all public reformatories in the State of New Jersey," and in its place the piece-price plan, or State account system, was substituted; and the result has been quite satisfactory.

By act of the General Assembly, passed April 16, 1891, the parole

system was inaugurated, and is now in operation. Thus far 126 prisoners have been paroled, and only two have been returned.

A feature peculiar to this prison is what is known as the "vesper hour." The vesper service of vocal and instrumental music is held daily in the centre, and thence radiated to the occupants of the remotest wings. The influence of good music has been found very beneficial, and is now accepted and established as a valuable reformatory influence.

New Mexico.

The Territory of New Mexico has a penitentiary at Santa Fé, built in 1884, in which there are now reported, by the governor, 130 prisoners. The prisoners are employed in the prison grounds, mostly in making brick. Pardons and commutations are made by the governor.

New York.

New York has eleven convict prisons, with location and number of prisoners reported in the census of 1890 as follows:—

State Prison, Auburn,	1,245
State Prison, Dannemora,	819
State Prison, Sing Sing,	1,535
Reformatory, Elmira,	1,123
House of Refuge for Women, Hudson,	216
Albany County Penitentiary, Albany,	728
Erie County Penitentiary, Buffalo,	511
King's County Penitentiary, Brooklyn,	631
Monroe County Penitentiary, Rochester	252
New York County Penitentiary, New York,	1,005
Onondaga County Penitentiary, Syracuse,	115

The institutions for juvenile delinquents, with number of inmates reported by census of 1890, are:—

State Industrial School, Rochester,	750
House of Refuge, New York,	566
Catholic Protectory, male department, Westchester,	1,506
Catholic Protectory, female department, Westchester,	678
City Truant Home, Brooklyn,	175

New York, as befits her position as the Empire State of the Union, leads in progress in dealing with the criminal classes, as she leads in wealth and population.

It is to be regretted that a report of progress in New York is wanting; but the superintendent of prisons, to whom letter of inquiry was referred by the governor, declined for want of time to answer. Application was then made to the secretary of the New York Prison Association, who undertook to supply the deficiency, but on account of a serious illness has been unable to complete the desired monograph in time for incorporation in the printed report.

North Carolina.

North Carolina, by the census of 1890, had 1,422 prisoners, of these 60 were women and 88 per cent. were negroes. Two hundred and fourteen (214) were within prison walls at Raleigh, and the remainder were scattered over the State in camps under the lease system.

North Carolina is the only Southern State in which a State Board of Charities and Correction has been created, and from the response of its secretary we have a full and specific account of progress made in dealing with the criminal classes.

1. The North Carolina penitentiary was opened Jan. 9, 1870; but it has only recently been completed. It is the largest, best planned, best equipped prison structure in the South, and one of the best in the United States, and has a capacity of 1,200. This costly and admirably appointed prison, however, is apparently of little use to the State; for less than one-tenth of the convicts of the State are in it. This condition of affairs seems to arise from a general opposition of the people of the State to manufacturing industries that will compete with free labor; and consequently about six years ago a system was inaugurated, whereby counties can retain convicts sentenced for less than ten years, and utilize them in road-making and other industries. Where counties do not care to thus utilize their prisoners, the State works them mainly on farms and State improvements.

The official reports for Dec. 1, 1892, show a total number of prisoners of 1,122, of whom only 116 were in the penitentiary. Of the remainder there were employed under State control on Halifax farm, 115; on Caledonia farm, 239; on Castle Hayne farm, 58; on dike at Caledonia farm, 282; on Great Falls Canal, 71. Of course, under such a system reformatory influences are small; but

it is much in advance of the old lease system, and, when the vagaries of the Farmer's Alliance have run their course, a larger advance can be expected.

2. No juvenile reformatory has yet been established, but a bill creating a reform school has been under consideration by the legislature; and its passage is expected at the next session. In some of the counties, however, some provision has been made for juvenile delinquents.

3. There are 96 county jails, and under the inspection of the State Board of Charities and Correction large improvements have been made in management and sanitary care.

4. The last decade, and especially the latter portion of it, has been distinguished by a great advancement and improvement in our criminal laws and procedure,—many ancient forms and antiquated rules have been abandoned, and in their place have been substituted statutes and regulations and forms more in accordance with the enlightened spirit of the age.

Among the causes of progress reported are "the enormous increase in educational facilities of every character, public and private. The churches, too, of all denominations, flourish as never before, and control public sentiment. The Christian day of rest is strictly observed in all our towns and villages; the use of ardent spirits has lessened in a remarkable degree; we have no large city as a nest of crime; the King's Daughters and Woman's Christian Temperance Union, and kindred bodies, have effected most valuable results; the five orphan asylums have rescued great numbers of children from inpending ruin, and the result is that many of our jails are empty for years at a time."

North Dakota.

North Dakota became a State in 1889. It has a penitentiary at Bismarck, with a capacity of 160. Number of inmates in 1890 was 65. No response to inquiries.

Ohio.

Ohio has one penitentiary at Columbus, with a prison population, by the census of 1890, of 1,652, of whom 30 were women. On the 15th of November, 1892, it had 1,727 inmates.

For juvenile delinquents Ohio has the Boys' Industrial School at Lancaster, with 585 inmates; the Girls' Industrial Home at Delaware, with 281 inmates; the House of Refuge at Cincinnati, with 266 inmates, 321 boys and 45 girls.

Ohio also has workhouses at Cincinnati, Cleveland, Toledo, and Zanesville, with total commitments in 1890 of 9,093, and a daily average of 1,598.

Ohio also has 88 jails, one for each county, with a total number of commitments for the year of about 10,000.

Among improvements worthy of note are: During the past twenty years new jails have been built in about one-fourth of the 88 counties, upon what is known as the "Ohio plan," which are so constructed as to provide for the cellular separation of prisoners; and the law directs that no prisoner awaiting trial shall associate with any other prisoner. In a majority of the old county jails improvements have also been made, especially in ventilation and sewerage.

During the same period new workhouses have been built in Toledo, Zanesville, and Canton.

Several new city prisons have been built, and city lockups have been greatly improved, especially in the larger cities. The new 28th Ward Station House in Cleveland is a model of its kind, and probably has no superior in the United States.

Cincinnati also has some new and admirably equipped stations. The police force of Cincinnati has been greatly improved. It has been entirely taken out of politics; and in its personal discipline, and in its efficiency, it is unsurpassed in America.

The new prison at Mansfield, known as the Ohio State Reformatory, is now approaching completion, and is expected to be the best built and the best equipped prison in the United States. Its capacity will be 800, and its estimated cost is $1,250,000.

The Ohio penitentiary has been enlarged, and now has 1,628 cells; but nearly 200 of these, in the upper tiers, are not habitable in hot weather, so that with its present population of over 1,700 there is a pressing need for the completion of the reformatory at Mansfield. There has been a noticeable improvement in the intelligence and humanity of prison administration during the past twenty years. City lockups especially have been greatly improved, and police matrons are now required by law in all cities of 50,000 inhabitants or more.

By act of the General Assembly passed May 12, 1886, executions in capital cases are all carried into effect in the Ohio penitentiary at Columbus, in what is known as the annex, especially prepared for that purpose. This doubtless is an improvement on the horrors of executions in county jails, but there is a growing public sentiment that a far greater improvement would be to abolish the death penalty altogether.

By act of the General Assembly passed Feb. 27, 1885, contract labor was abolished; and all prisoners are required to be worked upon State account or upon the piece-price plan.

By act of the General Assembly passed April 14, 1884, the courts were authorized to sentence offenders for their first felony to a general sentence, subject to parole by the prison managers; but such imprisonment shall not exceed the maximum term provided by law for the crime committed. By the same act the privilege of parole was extended to first offenders sentenced for a definite period of time.

By act of the General Assembly passed April 24, 1891, organizing the Ohio State Reformatory, all offenders convicted of their first felony, and under thirty years of age, may be sent to that institution, and shall receive a general or indeterminate sentence and subject to parole. The rules for classification and parole will be similar to those of the New York State Reformatory at Elmira.

During the eight years the indeterminate sentence and parole system has been in operation in the Ohio penitentiary about 800 prisoners have been paroled, and only 8 per cent. have been returned for a violation of parole; and the system, although badly administered, has proved to be a large advance upon previous methods.

The Ohio State Reformatory was authorized in 1885, and has been under construction since that time, and is expected to be ready for the reception of prisoners in 1894. The law providing for the organization and government of this institution provides (O. L., vol. 88, p. 382) that its board of managers shall consist of six members, not more than three of whom shall belong to the same political party, and stipulates that no officer or employee shall be selected or dismissed for political reasons.

The juvenile reformatories for boys at Lancaster, and for girls at Delaware, have also been enlarged and improved in construction

and management. Industrial training especially has been largely extended in recent years.

By act of the General Assembly passed May 4, 1885 (O. L., vol. 82, p. 237), it is provided "that any person twice convicted for felony shall upon a third conviction be deemed an habitual criminal, and be sentenced for life, subject to parole after serving the maximum period of the crime for which he is convicted." This valuable provision has not been enforced as fully as it should be, through the negligence of prosecuting attorneys in drawing indictments; but its value is unquestioned. Another law has recently been enacted which provides cumulative sentences for workhouse misdemeanants, and directs that for a second offence the penalty shall be double that of the first, for a third offence double the second, and for a fourth or later conviction the sentence shall be for three years. This law is mandatory upon the courts, and favorable results are expected from its enforcement.

By act of the General Assembly (O. L., vol. 85, p. 188) passed April 11, 1888, and amended April 25, 1891 (O. L., vol. 88, p. 392), a Board of Pardons was created, consisting of four members, not more than two of whom shall belong to the same political party, and serving four years, which law is still in force. This board meets quarterly, and considers all applications for pardon. Their decision, however, is not final; for the law provides that "the governor shall have full power, notwithstanding the action of said board, to grant or reject any application for the granting of pardon, commutation of sentence, or reprieve, if in his judgment the public interests would thereby be promoted."

Oregon.

Oregon has a State penitentiary at Salem, with a prison population in 1870 of 72. In 1890 there were 362. In 1892 there were 387. Its capacity is 400.

The State Reform School is four miles south of Salem, on a tract of land containing 388 acres, and was occupied in 1891; and the number of inmates Sept. 30, 1892, was 66.

The last legislature provided for the building of a new wing to the penitentiary and for increasing the capacity of the Reform School and providing facilities for industrial education. It also made a

radical change in the system of employing convict labor, and appropriated $190,000 for a plant and working capital of a jute mill for the manufacture of grain sacks. $65,000 was also appropriated for the purchase of a stove plant to employ the convicts until the jute mill is ready, and to employ any surplus labor thereafter.

Pennsylvania.

The Secretary of the Board of State Charities makes the following admirable report: —

1. Since 1870 the Pennsylvania Industrial Reformatory, situated at Huntingdon, has been open for the reception of convicts. By act of the legislature approved April 28, 1887, rules were enacted providing for the government of this institution. It is required that only convicts between the ages of fifteen and twenty-five years, sentenced for the first time, shall be admitted. All sentences thereto are general, and without limit as to time. It is provided, however, that such imprisonment shall not exceed the maximum term of the law for the offence committed. Credit is given each prisoner for good demeanor, diligence in study, and for results accomplished; while negligence, dereliction, and offences are charged against him. Upon the attainment of a certain number of good marks the inspectors can grant the prisoner discharge on parole. There are now about 500 prisoners in this reformatory.

2. The western penitentiary has been entirely rebuilt since 1870, and is now one of the finest institutions of its class in the country. Its inmates are congregated in the shops and in the chapel for religious exercises. At all other times they are kept separate. In addition to the two large blocks, accommodating each 500 male prisoners, a building entirely separate and apart has been erected for female prisoners. A special building is also provided for a hospital. All work is required to be conducted on the State account, and no contracts with private parties are allowed. All goods manufactured must be branded as made at the penitentiary. The Reform School, formerly situated in Pittsburg, was removed in 1876 to new and improved buildings, six in number, at Morganza, about twenty-five miles below Pittsburg, on the Chartiers branch of the Pan-Handle Railroad. One of these buildings, about a quarter of a mile distant from the others, is used as a department for girls. Those received

CONVICTS IN PENNSYLVANIA.

Year.	Total number of prisoners in Pennsylvania in confinement Sept. 30, including those held for trial.	Convicts.						
		Number admitted to penitentiaries during year.	Number admitted to jails during year.	Number admitted to Huntingdon Reformatory during year.	Number discharged from penitentiaries during year.	Number discharged from jails during year.	Number discharged from Huntingdon Reformatory during year.	Number in jail and penitentiaries September 30.
1892, .	6,442	789	3,240	333	710	3,338	342	3,725
1891, .	6,518	795	3,247	310	779	3,106	195	3,753
1890, .	6,096	772	3,129	271	802	3,123	91	3,481
1889, .	5,610	883	3,078	155	862	2,953	3	3,325
1888, .	5,273	818	3,135	–	783	3,130	–	3,027
1887, .	5,517	773	2,674	–	812	2,572	–	2,987
1886, .	5,429	837	2,651	–	871	2,692	–	2,924
1885, .	5,394	840	2,706	–	740	2,690	–	2,999
1884, .	5,289	733	2,307	–	733	2,256	–	2,883
1883, .	4,934	748	2,323	–	629	2,377	–	2,832
1882, .	4,773	671	2,477	–	790	2,346	–	2,767
1881, .	4,649	705	2,249	–	728	2,173	–	2,755
1880, .	4,623	712	2,307	–	845	2,521	–	2,702
1879, .	4,900	883	2,537	–	786	2,903	–	3,049
1878, .	6,126	837	3,186	–	843	3,014	–	3,318
1877, .	5,815	903	2,951	–	686	2,996	–	3,152
1876, .	5,547	802	2,863	–	513	2,547	–	2,980
1875, .	4,666	623	2,339	–	422	2,247		2,375

JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

Year.	Total number of inmates Sept. 30 in House of Refuge, Philadelphia, and Reform School, Morganza.	Number admitted during year ending Sept. 30.	Number discharged during year ending Sept. 30.
1892,	1,114	702	811
1891,	1,223	675	696
1890,	1,244	867	859
1889,	1,236	822	821
1888,	1,235	837	702
1887,	1,100	748	846
1886,	1,198	705	711
1885,	1,204	710	611
1884,	1,105	692	597
1883,	1,010	580	468
1882,	898	596	533
1881,	835	484	475
1880,	826	530	573
1879,	869	503	498
1878,	864	534	397
1877,	727	507	411
1876,	631	437	532
1875,	726	473	644
1874,	897	516	472
1873,	853	–	–

here are for the most part children committed by magistrates, on charges preferred by their parents and others that they were incorrigible. Large shops are provided in which the inmates are taught tailoring, shoemaking, chair-making, broom-making, and carpentry, while in large green-houses and truck-patches the inmates are taught those branches which fit them to become farmers and gardeners. In 1892 the House of Refuge, Philadelphia, was removed from the prison-like structure which for the last half-century has accommodated its inmates, to capacious grounds containing five hundred acres, situated at Glen Mills, Delaware County, Pa. Here, in thirteen large commodious buildings, thoroughly equipped for their purpose, the male portion of the institution is accommodated, being divided into thirteen families of fifty each. The buildings are substantially constructed, and are furnished with every appliance that modern philanthropy has suggested as necessary to accomplish the greatest amount of good to the classes herein confined.

3. Fifty per cent. of the jails of this State have been rebuilt since 1870. The greatest change in our criminal laws is in the prohibition of contract labor in our jails. The influence of the trades-unions has been largely instrumental in bringing about this result.

Since the adoption of the new constitution in our State, the governor cannot grant a pardon or commutation without being advised to do so by the Board of Pardons, consisting of Lieutenant Governor, the Secretary of the Commonwealth, the Attorney-General, and the Secretary of Internal Affairs.

We regard as "novel, exceptional, and specially worthy of notice and commendation" the organization of some ten of our county jails (and the manner in which they are conducted) in Eastern Pennsylvania. By special laws passed before the present constitution of our State was adopted, these jails were placed under the charge of boards of inspectors, appointed in some cases by the judges, in others by the county commissioners, and in others jointly by the county commissioners and the judges. The inspectors are required to elect a warden, who generally retains his position during satisfactory service; also, to keep each prisoner separate and apart, to provide work for the occupation of every inmate, and to make such rules and regulations as may be necessary for the good government of the jail. The warden is required to appoint all deputies and other officials, to dwell in the jail, and to see that the rules and

regulations are properly enforced. In this manner a large number of long-term prisoners are confined with those serving short sentences. The number of prisoners at any one time rarely exceeds 100, but generally approaches that figure. The deputies are usually selected from men having thorough knowledge of some one of the trades taught in the jail. The intercourse between the prisoners and the officials is close, so that an intimate knowledge is gained by the latter of the personal characteristics of the former. This enables the best influences to be brought to bear on each case; and, when the time for discharge comes, a situation can readily be found for the prisoner. This frequently happens in all of these counties, and could not occur in large State institutions in which great numbers are congregated.

That which is known as the Pennsylvania system of separate confinement still exists in the eastern penitentiary of Philadelphia; and we believe that this institution, one of the oldest in America, can now, as in the past, challenge, without fear of results, comparison between itself and any institution created for similar purposes.

Rhode Island.

Rhode Island has one of the best constructed prisons in the United States, with 252 cells. This prison and a new jail for Providence County, the two institutions being in separate wings of the same building, were begun in 1874 and completed in 1878. The combined institutions were formerly in Providence. They are now in the town of Cranston, about seven miles from Providence. Post-office address, Howard, R.I. The accommodations of the jail wing have been inadequate for several years, and the legislature has been asked to provide means for building an additional wing or otherwise to afford relief. There are four jails in the several counties other than Providence, but only rarely is a person sentenced to one of them. They are mostly used as houses of detention for brief periods, and for the confinement of local offenders against town or city ordinances.

There is one reform school in the State. It has two departments, called respectively Sockanosset School for Boys and Oaklawn School for Girls. They are upon the same territory, but about a mile apart; and each has a superintendent independent of the other. Up

to 1880 the school was under the charge of the city of Providence. In that year the State assumed its care. A new institution was then commenced. In 1882 it was nearly completed, and the removal took place. The school is in the town of Cranston.

Since 1882 the institution has been conducted upon the open system, and the past year industrial education and military training were introduced at the Sockanosset School for Boys.

South Carolina.

South Carolina has a penitentiary at Columbia, with a prison population of 806 in 1890, of whom 38 were women.

South Carolina is one of the first of the Southern States to abandon the lease system. Its prison is well constructed and well managed, and is a credit to the State. No response to inquiries.

South Dakota.

South Dakota became a State in 1889. It has a penitentiary at Sioux Falls, with a capacity of 256. Number reported for 1891 was 65 males and 2 females. No response to inquiries.

Tennessee.

Tennessee remains under the lease system. It has a penitentiary at Nashville built in 1828. Its prison population in 1860 was 548, 4 of whom were females. A branch penitentiary at Coal Creek, with 134 inmates; a branch penitentiary at Tumore, with 290 inmates; a branch penitentiary at Olive Springs, with 100 inmates; and a branch penitentiary at Tracy City, with 371 inmates,— making the total number of convicts for the State 1,443. No response to inquiries.

Texas.

Texas has two penitentiaries, one at Rusk with 764 inmates in 1890, and one at Huntsville with 880 inmates.

There were also 23 camps in different parts of the State, with a prison population aggregating 1,675, thus making a total prison population of 3,319.

The lease system was abolished in Texas ten years ago, and since then the prisoners have been worked upon State account. At Huntsville they have a cotton factory, a machine shop, and various

other industries. At Rusk the industries are exclusively iron. Pig iron and water-pipes are largely manufactured.

The State Reformatory for juvenile offenders at Gatesville was opened Jan. 1, 1889, and reported for Oct. 31, 1890, 111 inmates. No response to inquiries.

Utah.

In Utah the United States has a Territorial penitentiary at Salt Lake City, with a prison population in 1890 of 180.

There is also a Territorial Reform School at Ogden. Its buildings were destroyed by fire in June, 1890, but were rebuilt immediately, and is now in a prosperous condition. No response to inquiries.

Vermont.

Vermont has one penitentiary at Windsor, with a prison population in 1870 of 86, and, in 1890, 88.

There is a Reform School at Vergennes, with 86 inmates, 73 boys and 13 girls, established in 1875.

The only penal institution built during the past twenty years is the House of Correction at Rutland, at a cost of $55,000. Occupied Jan. 1, 1879; daily average of inmates, 78.

The State prison at Windsor was rebuilt, with the exception of the wings, in 1879–80. Two large buildings for workshops were added, also chapel, store-rooms, wash-room, engine-room, office building, and house for superintendent. The contract system of labor has always prevailed in this prison.

In 1880 a law was passed giving the governor power to release a prisoner by a conditional discharge, and this system of parole is still in force.

Virginia.

Virginia has a State penitentiary at Richmond, with a prison population in 1860 of 955, of whom 85 were women. There were also 212 prisoners in three convict camps. No response to inquiries.

Washington.

Washington was admitted as a State Nov. 11, 1889. There is a State penitentiary at Walla Walla, with 231 prisoners in 1890. The United States also has a penitentiary at McNeil's Island, with 20 inmates. No response to inquiries.

West Virginia.

West Virginia has a State penitentiary at Moundsville, with 530 prisoners in 1890, 17 of whom were women. No response to inquiries.

Wisconsin.

Wisconsin has a penitentiary at Waupun, with 530 prisoners in 1890, of whom 17 were women.

There is an Industrial School for Girls at Milwaukee, with 176 inmates, and an Industrial School for Boys at Waukesha, with 415 inmates. No response to inquiries.

Wyoming.

Wyoming was admitted to the Union in 1889. It has a State penitentiary at Laramie, with 92 prisoners in 1892.

Convicts are worked on the lease system. No response to inquiries.

THE UNITED STATES.

Department of Justice, Washington, D.C., April 26, 1893.

Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Esq., *Chairman Board of State Charities, Mansfield, Ohio:*

Sir,— I am in receipt of your communication requesting information concerning the progress made during the past twenty years by the United States in dealing with its criminal classes.

It is to be regretted that more positive advancement in the treatment of United States prisoners and the collection of criminal statistics than we are able to present cannot be shown; but thus far Congress has failed to enact such measures as were requisite to this end, although frequent appeals therefor have not been lacking. Whatever progress has been made has been chiefly due to the efforts of the department and its agents; and it is only proper to say that from time to time, as the facts have been called for by the National Prison Congress, these efforts have been heartily indorsed.

The only institutions available for the confinement of United States prisoners, during the past twenty years, were the various penitentiaries, houses of correction, and reformatories under the management of the several States. Authority has been vested in the Attorney-General to utilize these institutions, when possible, for

the incarceration of prisoners convicted in a district where there was no suitable penitentiary. There were a few penitentiaries in the Territories, which were not at all modern in construction, with the exception of the prison at Sioux Falls, So. Dak., which was available for a few years only, and the Utah penitentiary, which is used alone for prisoners from that Territory. The law governing the disposition of United States prisoners is mostly contained in Chapter 9, Revised Statutes U.S.; and these sections have remained substantially unchanged till the present day. Since 1875 authority has, however, been given to the Attorney-General to furnish to prisoners of the United States, upon their discharge, gratuities in cash and clothing; and lately items for the transportation of the prisoners, upon their discharge, to the place of conviction, have been allowed. In addition to the above, Section 5543 of the Revised Statutes was amended, so that prisoners of the United States serving out their sentences in institutions located in States where no system of commutation was allowed became entitled to double the time for good conduct theretofore given, so that it now is two months in a year instead of one.

A glance at the above laws will show the difficulties encountered by the department in its desire to properly care for criminals convicted under the laws of the United States. Reference to the several reports of the Attorneys-General during the past twenty years will show that urgent recommendations from time to time have been made, asking that appropriations be granted for the building of a United States penitentiary. It was not until 1891 that any success on this line was realized. In that year a bill was passed, approved March 3, providing for the erection of three United States prisons, one west of the Rocky Mountains, and two east. The bill explains at length the manner in which the prisons shall be built, and the regulations for running the same; yet it became entirely inoperative from the fact that no money was appropriated.

In 1887 an act was approved on the 23d of February, prohibiting the employment of United States prisoners on contract labor. This law caused the department great inconvenience, because many prisons that were heretofore available could not be used, as the industries carried on therein were under the contract system. Besides all this, many of the States adopted legislation prohibiting the reception within the walls of their penitentiaries of United States prisoners convicted in other States.

I call the above to your attention, in order that you may see the difficulties under which the Department of Justice has labored in dealing properly with the prison problem.

The only way in which the sentence of the court can be carried out is by the confinement of the prisoner in some State institution. There the prisoner, in accordance with the laws of the United States, becomes subject to the rules and discipline of the institution

in which he is confined. The only way in which the Attorney-General has been able to better the condition of United States prisoners is by investigations, through his agents from time to time, and personal examination by them of the convicts scattered throughout the country; and, if certain abuses are found to exist, the place of imprisonment may be changed, as provided by Section 5546 of the Revised Statutes.

Prisoners awaiting trial or sentenced to short terms of imprisonment are confined in the various jails. The government conducts a United States jail in the District of Columbia, at Fort Smith, Ark., and at Sitka, Alaska. The first is to a great extent a model institution, the second for a number of years was anything but creditable to the government; and by the urgent efforts of the department, aided by members of Congress interested in the subject, appropriations were made available for the building of a new jail, and the subsequent abandonment of the old court-house for the new has furnished needed additional accommodations. The jail at Sitka is a temporary affair.

The department, from time to time, has endeavored to keep pace with the prison problems of the day, and believes that eventually a government penitentiary will be built, and that provision will be made for the collection of criminal statistics from year to year, showing the relation of crime in the different States, and so that a comparison may be made with other countries. While the department has labored under many disadvantages, yet, so far as possible, the best institutions have been utilized, and the treatment of the United States prisoners has been carefully guarded. Cruel and unusual punishments are in no case permitted, and the United States prisoners may be said to be well cared for and humanely treated wherever they are confined.

While this much may be said, yet the situation in 1893, so far as government penal institutions are concerned, is substantially the same as in 1873. To a great extent the same prisons are used for the confinement of government prisoners. During the past ten years greater attention has been given this subject than previously, in that the department endeavored, by frequent investigations, to become thoroughly acquainted with the condition and the treatment of the prisoners in the several State institutions; and in this way it may be said an advance has been made by the department.

In 1873 the number of United States prisoners was about six hundred, as nearly as can be ascertained; while on June 30, 1892, according to statistics of the department, there were 1,850, and these confined in the following institutions: —

District.	Institution.	Location.	No.
Arizona,	Territorial Prison,	Yuma,	6
Arkansas, Eastern,	State Penitentiary,	Little Rock,	2
California, Northern,	California State Prison,	San Quentin,	39
California, Northern,	California State Prison,	Folsom,	9
Colorado,	Colorado State Industrial School,	Golden,	2
District of Columbia,	Reform School,	Washington, D.C.	16
Idaho,	Idaho State Prison,	Boisé City,	9
Illinois, Northern,	State Penitentiary,	Joliet,	17
Illinois, Southern,	Southern Illinois Penitentiary,	Chester,	25
Indiana,	State Prison, South,	Jeffersonville,	10
Indiana,	State Prison, North,	Michigan City,	17
Indiana,	Reform School for Girls and Women's Prison,	Indianapolis,	1
Indiana,	Reform School for Boys,	Plainfield,	1
Iowa, Northern,	State Penitentiary,	Anamosa,	6
Iowa, Southern,	State Penitentiary,	Fort Madison,	12
Kansas,	State Penitentiary,	Lansing,	44
Maine,	Maine State Prison,	Thomaston,	7
Maine,	Reform School,	Cape Elizabeth,	1
Maryland,	State Penitentiary,	Baltimore,	2
Maryland,	House of Reformation,	Cheltenham,	11
Maryland,	House of Refuge,	Baltimore,	2
Maryland,	House of Correction,	Jessups,	1
Massachusetts,	State Prison,	Charlestown,	7
Massachusetts,	Massachusetts Reformatory,	Concord,	6
Michigan, Eastern,	House of Correction,	Detroit,	432
Minnesota,	State Prison,	Stillwater,	3
Missouri, Western,	State Penitentiary,	Jefferson City,	40
Missouri, Western,	Reform School,	Boonville,	1
Montana,	State Penitentiary,	Deer Lodge,	3
Nevada,	State Prison,	Carson City,	14
New Hampshire,	State Prison,	Concord,	1
New Jersey,	Hudson County Penitentiary,	Snake Hill,	3
New Jersey,	Essex County Penitentiary,	Caldwell,	8
New Jersey,	State Prison,	Trenton,	10
New Mexico,	New Mexico Penitentiary,	Santa Fé,	16
New York, Northern,	Albany County Penitentiary,	Albany,	299
New York, "	Erie County Penitentiary,	Buffalo,	64
New York, "	State Reformatory,	Elmira,	24
New York, "	Monroe County Penitentiary,	Rochester,	6
New York, Eastern,	Kings County Penitentiary,	Brooklyn,	12
Ohio, Northern,	Workhouse,	Cleveland,	5
Ohio, Southern,	Ohio Penitentiary,	Columbus,	269
Oregon,	State Prison,	Salem,	12
Pennsylvania, Eastern,	Eastern State Penitentiary,	Philadelphia,	29
Pennsylvania, Western,	Western Penitentiary,	Allegheny,	35
Rhode Island,	State Prison,	Howard,	4
South Dakota,	State Penitentiary,	Sioux Falls,	15
Utah,	Utah Penitentiary,	Salt Lake City,	214
Vermont,	State Prison,	Windsor,	1
West Virginia,	State Penitentiary,	Moundsville,	15
West Virginia,	West Virginia Reform School,	Pruntytown,	4
Washington,	United States Penitentiary,	McNeil's Island,	32
Wisconsin, Eastern,	State Prison,	Waupun,	10
Wisconsin, Eastern,	House of Correction,	Milwaukee,	5
Wyoming,	State Prison,	Laramie,	11
		Total,	1,850

While the above is assuredly anything but a clear and concise statement of any progress made by the government in the treatment of the criminals of the United States, who, by the by, are, as a rule, a class above the intelligence of the ordinary convict in view of the fact that the crimes for which they are convicted are committed oftentimes by persons holding positions of prominence and trust, it is, however, the best we are able to offer. It is to be hoped that the facts will so impress themselves upon Congress that the money necessary for the proper treatment of United States prisoners will be appropriated, in order that the criminals of the United States, tried and convicted of violating the laws of the United States, may serve out their sentences, imposed by the United States courts, in institutions over which the United States has entire authority. Until this is done, it will be impossible to show the desired progress in the treatment of the United States prisoner.

The foregoing has been prepared by me at the request of the Attorney-General, who has been unable to give any personal attention to the subject.

Very respectfully,

FRANK STRONG, *General Agent.*

IX.

The Feeble-minded.

THE HISTORY OF THE TREATMENT OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

BY WALTER E. FERNALD, M.D.

The first recorded attempt to educate an idiot was made about the year 1800, by Itard, the celebrated physician-in-chief to the National Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Paris, upon a boy found wild in a forest in the centre of France, and known as the "savage of Aveyron." "This boy could not speak any human tongue, and was devoid of all understanding and knowledge." Believing him to be a savage, for five years Itard endeavored with great skill and perseverance to develop at the same time the intelligence of his pupil and the theories of the materialistic school of philosophy. Itard finally became convinced that this boy was an idiot, and abandoned the attempt to educate him.

In the year 1818 and for a few years afterward, several idiotic children were received and given instruction at the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at Hartford, and a fair degree of improvement in physical condition, habits, and speech was obtained.

In the year 1828 Dr. Ferret, physician at the Bicêtre in Paris, attempted to teach a few of the more intelligent idiots who were confined in this hospital to read and write and to train them to habits of cleanliness and order. In 1831 Dr. Fabret attempted the same work at the Salpetrière; and in 1833 Dr. Voisin opened his private school for idiots in Paris. None of these attempts was successful enough to insure its continuance.

In 1837 Dr. E. Seguin, a pupil of Itard and Esquirol, began the private instruction of idiots at his own expense. In 1842 he was made the instructor of the school at the Bicêtre, which had been

reopened by Dr. Voisin in 1839. Dr. Seguin remained at the Bicêtre only one year, retiring to continue the work in his private school in the Hospice des Incurables. After seven years of patient work and experiments and the publication of two or three pamphlets describing the work, a committee from the Academy of Sciences at Paris in 1844 examined critically and thoroughly his methods of training and educating idiot children, and reported to the Academy, giving it the highest commendation and declaring that, up to the time he commenced his labors in 1837, idiots could not be educated by any means previously known or practised, but that he had solved the problem. His work thus approved by the highest authority, Dr. Seguin continued his private school in Paris until the Revolution in 1848, when he came to America, where he was instrumental in establishing schools for idiots in various States.

In 1846 Dr Seguin published his classical and comprehensive "Treatise on Idiocy," which was crowned by the Academy and has continued to be the standard text-book for all interested in the education of idiots up to the present time. His elaborate system of teaching and training idiots consisted in the careful "adaptation of the principles of physiology, through physiological means and instruments, to the development of the dynamic, perceptive, reflective, and spontaneous functions of youth." This physiological education of defective brains as a result of systematic training of the special senses, the functions, and the muscular system, was looked upon as a visionary theory, but has been verified and confirmed by modern experiments and researches in physiological psychology.

Dr. Seguin's school was visited by scientists and philanthropists from nearly every part of the civilized world, and, his methods bearing the test of experience, other schools were soon established in other countries, based upon these methods.

In 1842 Dr. Guggenbuhl established a school upon the slope of the Abendenberg in Switzerland, for the care and training of cretins, so many of whom are found in the dark, damp valleys of the Alps. This school was very successful in its results, and attracted much attention throughout Europe. At Berlin, in 1842, a school for the instruction of idiots was opened by Dr. Saegert. In England the publication of the results of the work of Drs. Seguin, Guggenbuhl, and Saegert, and the efforts of Drs. Connolly and Reed, led to the establishment of a private school at Bath in 1846, and later to the finely appointed establishments at Colchester and Earlswood.

The published description of the methods and results of these European schools attracted much interest and attention in America. In this country the necessity and humanity of caring for and scientifically treating the insane, the deaf and dumb, and the blind had become the policy of many of our most progressive States. The class of helpless and neglected idiots who had no homes, as a rule were cared for in jails and poorhouses. A few idiots who had been received at the special schools for the deaf and dumb and the blind showed considerable improvement after a period of training. Other cases who were especially troublesome had been sent to the insane hospitals, where it was shown that the habits and behavior of this class could be changed very much for the better. In their reports for 1845 Drs. Woodward and Brigham, superintendents of the State Insane Hospitals in Massachusetts and New York respectively, urged the necessity of making public provision for the education of idiots in those States. On the 13th of January, 1846, Dr. F. P. Backus, a member of the New York Senate, made the first step toward any legislative action in this country in behalf of idiots, by moving that the portion of the last State census relating to idiots be referred to the committee on medical societies of which he was chairman. On the following day he made an able report, giving the number of idiots in the State, a brief history of the European schools, with a description of their methods and results, and showed conclusively that schools for idiots were a want of the age. On the 25th of March following he introduced a bill providing for the establishment of an asylum for idiots. The bill passed the Senate, but was defeated in the Assembly.

In Massachusetts, on the 23d of January in the same year, 1846, Judge Byington, a member of the House of Representatives, moved an order providing for the appointment of a committee to "consider the expediency of appointing commissioners to inquire into the condition of idiots in the Commonwealth, to ascertain their number, and whether anything can be done for their relief." This order was passed, and, as a result, a board of three commissioners was appointed, of which Dr. S. G. Howe was chairman. This commission made a report in part in 1847, which included a letter from Hon. G. S. Sumner, in which he described in glowing terms the methods and results of the school of Dr. Seguin in Paris. In March, 1848, the commission made a complete and exhaustive report, with statisti-

cal tables and minute details, and recommended the opening of an experimental school. This report was widely circulated and read throughout America and Europe, and furnishes to-day the basis of cyclopedic literature on this topic.

By a resolve passed on the 8th of May, 1848, the legislature appropriated $2,500 annually for the purpose of establishing an experimental school, with the proviso that ten indigent idiots from different parts of the State should be selected for instruction. This act founded the first State institution in America. The first pupil was received on the 1st of October, 1848. The direction of the school was undertaken by Dr. Howe, and for several years was carried on in connection with the Perkins Institution for the Blind, of which he was the director. Mr. J. B. Richards, an able instructor, was engaged as teacher, and went to Europe to study the methods of the foreign schools. The school was considered so successful that, at the end of three years, the legislature doubled the annual appropriation, and by incorporation converted the experimental school into a permanent one under the name of "The Massachusetts School for Idiotic and Feeble-minded Youth."

Two months after the legislature had authorized the establishment of the Massachusetts School, a private school was opened at Barre, Mass., by Dr. H. B. Wilbur, the first pupil being received in July, 1848. In the modest announcement of the project Dr. Wilbur says, "This institution is designed for the education and management of all children who by reason of mental infirmity are not fit subjects for ordinary school instruction." The school was organized on the family plan. The pupils all sat at the same table with the principal, and were constantly under the supervision of some member of the family in the hours of recreation and rest as well as of training. This private school has been continued on the same plan, and has been very successful and prosperous under the administration of Dr. Wilbur and that of his able successor, the late Dr. George Brown.

In the State of New York the legislative attempt defeated in 1846 was renewed in 1847, and this bill also passed the Senate, to be again defeated in the Assembly. The necessity for action was urged in the governor's annual messages in the years 1848, 1850, and 1851. Finally, in July, 1851, an act was passed appropriating $6,000 annually for two years, for the purpose of maintaining an experimen-

tal school for idiots. A suitable building, near Albany, was rented and the school opened in October, 1851. The trustees selected for superintendent Dr. H. B. Wilbur, who had so successfully organized and conducted the private school at Barre, Mass., for more than three years previously. In the first annual report of the trustees, published in 1851, the aims and purposes of the proposed school were summed up as follows: —

We do not propose to create or supply faculties absolutely wanting; nor to bring all grades of idiocy to the same standard of development or discipline; nor to make them all capable of sustaining creditably all the relations of a social and moral life; but rather to give to dormant faculties the greatest possible development, and to apply these awakened faculties to a useful purpose under the control of an aroused and disciplined will. At the base of all our efforts lies the principle that, as a rule, none of the faculties are absolutely wanting, but dormant, undeveloped, and imperfect.

This school attracted much attention from educators and others, and was frequently and critically inspected by the members of the legislature and other State officials. On the 11th of April, 1853, the legislature authorized the erection of new buildings. The citizens of Syracuse donated the land, and the corner-stone of the first structure in this country built expressly for the purpose of caring for and training idiots was laid Sept. 8, 1854. The school at Syracuse continued under Dr. Wilbur's direction until his death in 1883. In this school the physiological method of education has been most thoroughly and scientifically carried out, and a high degree of success attained.

Pennsylvania was the third State to take up the work. In the winter of 1852 a private school for idiots was opened in Germantown, by Mr. J. B. Richards, the first teacher in the school at South Boston. This school was incorporated April 7, 1853, as the Pennsylvania Training School for Idiotic and Feeble-minded Children. The first money received for its support was raised by private subscription, and the State contributed an equal sum. In 1855 the present site at Elwyn was secured, and the foundations laid for the present magnificent institution village with nearly a thousand inmates.

The Ohio Institution at Columbus was established April 17, 1857, and pupils were received the same year. The State of Ohio has

from the beginning provided for her feeble-minded children on a more liberal and generous scale than any other State. The Columbus Institution, with its substantial buildings and splendid equipment, its admirably conducted school and industrial departments, has been made one of the best institutions in the world devoted to the care and training of this special class.

In Connecticut, in 1855, a State commission was appointed to investigate the conditions of the idiotic population, and to consider the advisability of making suitable provision for the education of this class. The report of this commission resulted in the establishment of the Connecticut School for Imbeciles at Lakeville, in 1858, under the superintendency of Dr. H. M. Knight. This school, although aided by the State, has been largely supported by private benevolence and payments from private pupils.

The Kentucky Institution at Frankfort was opened in 1860. For many years previously the State had granted an allowance of $50 per annum to each needy family afflicted with the burden of a feeble-minded child. In Illinois an experimental school for idiots and feeble-minded children was opened in 1865 as an offshoot of the school for deaf-mutes at Jacksonville. In the course of a few years this school obtained a separate organization, and new institution buildings were constructed at Lincoln and occupied in 1873. The Hillside Home, a private school, was opened at Fayville, Mass., in 1870.

Thus, up to 1874, twenty-six years after this work was begun in America, public institutions for the feeble-minded had been established in seven States. These institutions then had under training a total of 1,041 pupils. There were also the two private institutions in Massachusetts at Barre and Fayville, with a total of 69 inmates.

The early history of these pioneer State institutions in many respects was very similar. They were practically all begun as tentative experiments in the face of great public distrust and doubt as to the value of the results to be obtained. In Connecticut the commissioners found a "settled conviction of a large majority of the citizens of the Commonwealth that idiots were a class so utterly helpless that it was a waste of time even to collect any statistics regarding them." Very little was known of the causes, frequency, nature, or varieties of idiocy, or of the principles and methods to be employed in successfully training and caring for this class of persons.

The annual reports of the early superintendents, Drs. Howe, Wilbur, Brown, Parrish, and Knight, exhaustively considered the subject in all relations, and graphically presented to legislators and the public convincing and unanswerable reasons as to the feasibility and necessity of granting to feeble-minded children according to their ability the same opportunities for education that were given to their more fortunate brothers and sisters in the public schools.

All of these schools were organized as strictly educational institutions. In one of his earlier reports Dr. Howe says, "It is a link in the chain of common schools,— the last indeed, but still a necessary link in order to embrace all the children in the State." Again he says, "This institution, being intended for a school, should not be converted into an asylum for incurables." Dr. Wilbur, in his seventh annual report, says, "A new institution in a new field of education has the double mission of securing the best possible results, and at the same time of making that impression upon the public mind as will give faith in its object." With the limited capacity of these schools as established, it seemed best to advocate the policy of admitting only the higher-grade cases, where the resulting improvement and development could be compared with that of normal children.

It was hoped and believed that a large proportion of this higher-grade or "improvable" class of idiots could be so developed and educated that they would be capable of supporting themselves and of creditably maintaining an independent position in the community. It was maintained that the State should not assume the permanent care of these defectives, but that they should be returned to their homes after they had been trained and educated. It was the belief of the managers that only a relatively small number of inmates could be successfully cared for in one institution. It was deemed unwise to congregate a large number of persons suffering under any common infirmity.

Nearly every one of these early institutions was opened at or near the capitals of their various States, in order that the members of the legislature might closely watch their operations and personally see their need and the results of the instruction and training of these idiots. No institution was ever abandoned or given up after having been established. In all of the institutions the applications for admission were far in excess of their capacity.

In the course of a few years, in the annual reports of these institutions we find the superintendents regretting that it was not expedient to return to the community a certain number of the cases who had received all the instruction the school had to offer. When the limit of age was reached, it was a serious problem to decide what should be done with the trained boy or girl. It was found that only a small proportion, even of these selected pupils, could be so developed and improved that they could go out into the world and support themselves independently. A larger number, as a result of the school discipline and training, could be taken home where they became comparatively harmless and unobjectionable members of the family, capable, under the loving and watchful care of their friends, of earning by their labor as much as it cost to maintain them. But in many cases the guardians of these children were unwilling to remove them from the institution, and begged that they might be allowed to remain where they could be made happy and kept from harm. Many of these cases were homeless and friendless, and, if sent away from the school, could only be transferred to almshouses where they became depraved and demoralized by association with adult paupers and vagrants of both sexes. It was neither wise nor humane to turn these boys and girls out to shift for themselves. The placing out of these feeble-minded persons always proved unsatisfactory. Even those who had suitable homes and friends able and willing to become responsible for them, by the death of these relatives were thrown on their own resources and drifted into pauperism and crime. It gradually became evident that a certain number of these higher-grade cases needed lifelong care and supervision, and that there was no suitable provision for this permanent custody outside these special institutions.

Once it was admitted that our full duty toward this class must include the retention and guardianship of some of these cases who had been trained in the schools, the wisdom and necessity of still further broadening the work became apparent. It was found that more than one-half of the applications for admission, and those by far the most insistent, were in behalf of the "unimprovables," as Dr. Howe described them. This lower class of idiots, many of them with untidy, disgusting, and disagreeable habits, feeble physically, perhaps deformed and misshapen, often partially paralyzed or subject to epilepsy, cannot be given suitable care at home. There is no

greater burden possible in a home or a neighborhood. It has been well said that by institution care, for every five idiots cared for we restore four productive persons to the community; for, whereas at home the care of each of these children practically requires the time and energies of one person, in an institution the proportion of paid employees is not over one to each five inmates. The home care of a low-grade idiot consumes so much of the working capacity of the wage-earner of the household that often the entire family become pauperized. Humanity and public policy demanded that these families should be relieved of the burden of these helpless idiots. From the nature of their infirmities it is evident that the care of this class must last as long as they live. As nearly every one of these low-grade idiots eventually becomes a public burden, it is better to assume this care when they are young and susceptible of a certain amount of training than to receive them later on, undisciplined, helpless, destructive, adult idiots.

The brighter class of the feeble-minded, with their weak will power and deficient judgment, are easily influenced for evil, and are prone to become vagrants, drunkards, and thieves. The modern scientific study of the deficient and delinquent classes as a whole has demonstrated that a large proportion of our criminals, inebriates, and prostitutes are really congenital imbeciles, who have been allowed to grow up without any attempt being made to improve or discipline them. Society suffers the penalty of this neglect in an increase of pauperism and vice, and finally, at a greatly increased cost, is compelled to take charge of adult idiots in almshouses and hospitals, and of imbecile criminals in jails and prisons, generally during the remainder of their natural lives. As a matter of mere economy, it is now believed that it is better and cheaper for the community to assume the permanent care of this class before they have carried out a long career of expensive crime.

Dr. Kerlin has ably presented to this Conference the special subject of moral imbecility. This class of moral imbeciles may show little or no deficiency of the intellectual faculties, but in early childhood manifest a marked absence or perversion of the moral sense, as shown by motiveless, persistent lying and thieving, a blind and headlong impulse toward arson, and a delight in cruelty to animals or to young, helpless companions. These children, if they live, are predestined to become inmates of our insane hospitals or jails, and

for the good of the community should be early recognized and subjected to lifelong moral quarantine.

Dr. Kerlin, in his report to this Conference in 1884, says: —

There is no field of political economy which can be worked to better advantage, for the diminution of crime, pauperism, and insanity, than that of idiocy. The early recognition of some of its special and more dangerous forms should be followed by their withdrawal from unwholesome environments and their permanent sequestration before they are pronounced criminals and have, by the tuition of the slums, acquired a precocity that deceives even experts. Only a small percentage should ever be returned to the community, and then only under conditions that would preclude the probability of their assuming social relations under marriage, or becoming sowers of moral and physical disease under the garb of professional tramps and degraded prostitutes. How many of your criminals, inebriates, and prostitutes are congenital imbeciles! How many of your insane are really feeble-minded or imbecile persons, wayward or neglected in their early training, and at last conveniently housed in hospitals, after having wrought mischief, entered social relations, reproduced their kind, antagonized experts and lawyers, puzzled philanthropists, and in every possible manner retaliated on their progenitors for their origin, and on the community for their misapprehension! How many of your incorrigible boys, lodged in the houses of refuge, to be half educated in letters and wholly unreached in morals, are sent into the community the moral idiots they were at the beginning, only more powerfully armed for mischief! And pauperism breeding other paupers, what is it but imbecility let free to do its mischief?

The tendency to lead dissolute lives is especially noticeable in the females. A feeble-minded girl is exposed as no other girl in the world is exposed. She has not sense enough to protect herself from the perils to which women are subjected. Often bright and attractive, if at large they either marry and bring forth in geometrical ratio a new generation of defectives and dependants, or become irresponsible sources of corruption and debauchery in the communities where they live. There is hardly a poorhouse in this land where there are not two or more feeble-minded women with from one to four illegitimate children each. There is every reason in morality, humanity, and public policy that these feeble-minded women should be under permanent and watchful guardianship, especially during the child-bearing age. A feeble-minded girl of the higher grade was accepted as a pupil at the Massachusetts School

for the Feeble-minded when she was fifteen years of age. At the last moment the mother refused to send her to the school, as she "could not bear the disgrace of publicly admitting that she had a feeble-minded child." Ten years later the girl was committed to the institution by the court, after she had given birth to six illegitimate children, four of whom were still living and all feeble-minded. The city where she lived had supported her at the almshouse for a period of several months at each confinement, had been compelled to assume the burden of the life-long support of her progeny, and finally decided to place her in permanent custody. Her mother had died broken-hearted several years previously.

Modern usage has sanctioned the use of the term "feeble-minded" to include all degrees and types of congenital defect, from that of the simply backward boy or girl but little below the normal standard of intelligence to the profound idiot, a helpless, speechless, disgusting burden, with every degree of deficiency between these extremes. The lack may be so slight as to involve only the ability to properly decide questions of social propriety or conduct, or simply questions of morality, or it may profoundly affect every faculty. In theory, the differences between these various degrees of deficiency are marked and distinct, while in practice the lines of separation are entirely indefinite, and individuals as they grow to adult life may be successively classed in different grades. "Idiocy," generically used, covers the whole range referred to, but is now specifically used to denote only the lowest grades. "Imbecility" has reference to the higher grades. "Feeble-Minded" is a less harsh expression, and satisfactorily covers the whole ground.

We have learned from the researches of modern pathology that in many cases the arrested or perverted development is not merely functional or a delayed infantile condition, but is directly due to the results of actual organic disease, or injury to the brain or nervous system, occurring either before birth or in early infancy.

The work of caring for this class in this country has been greatly aided by the active influence of the Association of Medical Officers of American Institutions for Idiotic and Feeble-minded Persons. This society was organized in 1876, during the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia, and held its first meeting at the Pennsylvania Training School at Elwyn. The object of the Association is the consideration and discussion of all questions relating to the manage-

ment, training, and education of idiots and feeble-minded persons. It also lends its influence to the establishment and fostering of institutions for this purpose. The Association meets annually for the reading of papers and the discussion of the various phases of this work.

The material growth and separate history of the older institutions and the numerous public and private schools that have been opened in this country since 1874 are too comprehensive to be considered in detail in this report. The accompanying table shows the name, location, date of organization, and capacity of the various public institutions as existing at the close of 1892: —

Name.	Location.	Date of Organization.	Capacity.
California Home for Care and Training of Feeble-Minded Children,	Glen Ellen,	1885	259
Connecticut School for Imbeciles,	Lakeville,	1852	130
Illinois Asylum for Feeble-Minded Children,	Lincoln,	1865	536
Indiana School for Feeble-Minded Youth,	Fort Wayne,	1879	421
Iowa Institution for Feeble-Minded Children,	Glenwood,	1876	456
Kansas State Asylum for Idiotic and Imbecile Youth,	Winfield,	1881	102
Kentucky Institution for the Education and Training of Feeble-Minded Children,	Frankfort,	1860	156
Maryland Asylum and Training School for the Feeble-Minded,	Owing's Mills,	1888	40
Massachusetts School for the Feeble-Minded,	Waltham,	1848	450
Minnesota School for the Feeble-Minded,	Faribault,	1879	332
Nebraska Institution for Feeble-Minded Youth,	Beatrice,	1887	154
New York State Institution for Feeble-Minded Children,	Syracuse,	1851	502
New York State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-Minded Women,	Newark,	1885	345
Randall's Island Hospital and School,	New York Harbor	1870	364
New Jersey Home for the Education and Care of Feeble-Minded Children,	Vineland,	1888	154
New Jersey State Institution for Feeble-Minded Women,	Vineland,	1886	65
Ohio Institution for the Education of Feeble-Minded Youth,	Columbus,	1857	822
Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-Minded Children,	Elwyn,	1853	851
Washington School for Defective Youth,	Vancouver,	1892	25

At the close of the year 1892 these nineteen public institutions for the feeble-minded had under care and training a total of 6,009

inmates. The buildings and grounds in use for this purpose represent an outlay of more than $4,000,000. The annual public expenditure for the instruction and maintenance of these defectives now amounts to over $1,000,000. There are also nine private schools for the feeble-minded in the United States, caring for a total of 216 pupils.

The recognition of the characteristics, limitations, and needs of these various classes, and the results of experience in their training, care, and guardianship, have materially modified and broadened the scope and policy of our American institutions for the feeble-minded. To-day the advantages of these public institutions are not confined to the brighter cases needing school training especially, but have been gradually extended to a greater or less extent in the different States to all the grades and types of idiocy. With all these various classes pleading for admission, it is not strange that many of these institutions have become far more extensive than their founders dreamed of or hoped for. Successive legislatures have been ready to enlarge existing institutions when they would not grant appropriations for establishing new ones. The evil effects feared from congregating a large number of this class have not been realized, or have been minimized by careful classification and separation of the different groups. In fact, we find we must congregate them to get the best results. In order to have companionship, that most necessary thing in the education of all children, we must have large numbers from which to make up our small classes of those who are of an equal degree of intelligence.

The essentially educational character of the earlier institutions has been maintained, but the relations of the different parts of instruction are now better understood. The strictly school exercises, in the early days the most prominent feature, still perform their necessary and proper functions, but now in harmony with and preliminary to the more practical objects of the institution. Education, as applied to the development of these feeble-minded children, is now understood in the broadest sense, not as mere intellectual training, but as uniform cultivation of the whole being, physically, mentally, and morally. The end and aim of all our teaching and training is to make the child helpful to himself and useful to others.

Sir W. Mitchell says, "It is of very little use to be able to read words of two or three letters, but it is of great use to teach an im-

becile to put his clothes on and take them off, to be of cleanly habits, to eat tidily, to control his temper, to avoid hurting others, to act with politeness, to be truthful, to know something of numbers, to go with messages, to tell the hour by the clock, to know something of the value of coins, and a hundred other such things."

As now organized, our American institutions are broadly divided into two departments, the school, or educational, and the custodial. In the school department the children are instructed in the ordinary branches of the common schools. As compared with the education of normal children, it is a difference of degree, and not of kind. The progressive games and occupations of the kindergarten, object teaching, educational gymnastics, manual training, and the other graphic and attractive methods now so successfully applied in the education of normal children, are especially adapted to the training of the feeble-minded. These principles of physiological training of the senses and faculties, of exercising and developing the power of attention, perception, and judgment by teaching the qualities and properties of concrete objects instead of expecting the child to absorb ready-made knowledge from books, of progressively training the eye, the hand, and the ear,— these were the methods formulated by Seguin, and elaborated and applied by Richards, Wilbur, and Howe, years before the era of the kindergarten and the dawn of the new education. It would be difficult to properly estimate the influence of these original and successful methods of instructing the feeble-minded in suggesting and shaping the radical changes that have been made in the methods of modern primary teaching of normal children. With these feeble-minded children the instruction must begin on a lower plane: the progress is slower, and the pupil cannot be carried so far. In a school with several hundred children, a satisfactory gradation of classes can be made if a small proportion of classes showing irregular and unusual deficiencies are assigned to special classes for instruction through individual methods.

Most of the pupils of this grade learn to read and write, to know something of numbers, and acquire a more or less practical knowledge of common affairs. Careful attention is paid to the inculcation of the simple principles of morality, the teaching of correct habits and behavior, and observance of the ordinary amenities of life.

The most prominent feature of our educational training to-day is the attention paid to instruction in industrial occupations and man-

ual labor. In this "education by doing" we not only have a very valuable means of exercising and developing the dormant faculties and defective bodies of our pupils, but at the same time we are training them to become capable and useful men and women. The recent reports of these institutions show in detail the large variety and amount of work done by these children. Carpentering, painting, printing, brick-making, stock-raising, gardening, farming, domestic work, the manufacture of clothing, boots and shoes, brooms, brushes, and other industries, are now successfully and profitably carried on by the pupils in these schools, in connection with the strictly mental training.

Each year a certain number of persons of this class go out from these institutions and lead useful, harmless lives. Some of the institutions where only the brightest class of imbeciles are received, and where the system of industrial training has been very carefully carried out, report that from 20 to 30 per cent of the pupils are discharged as absolutely self-supporting. In other institutions, where the lower-grade cases are received, the percentage of cases so discharged is considerably less. It is safe to say that not over 10 to 15 per cent of our inmates can be made self-supporting in the sense of going out into the community and securing and retaining a situation and prudently spending their earnings. With all our training we cannot give our pupils that indispensable something known as good, plain "common sense." The amount and value of their labor depend upon the amount of oversight and supervision practicable. But it is safe to say that over 50 per cent of the adults of the higher grade who have been under training from childhood are capable, under intelligent supervision, of doing a sufficient amount of work to pay for the actual cost of their support, whether in an institution or at home.

The custodial department includes the lower grades of idiots, the juvenile insane, and the epileptics. Some of these children are as helpless as infants, incapable of standing alone, or of dressing or feeding themselves, or of making their wants known. Other cases are excitable and noisy, with markedly destructive tendencies. The chief indication with these lower-grade cases is to see that their wants are attended to, and to make them comfortable and happy as long as they live. But even with these cases much improvement is possible in the way of teaching them to wait on themselves, to dress

and undress, to feed themselves, in attention to personal cleanliness and habits of order and obedience. As a result of the kindly but firm discipline, the patient habit-teaching, and the well-ordered institution routine, a large proportion of these children become much less troublesome and disgusting, so much so that the burden and expense of their care and support are materially and permanently lessened.

In the custodial department are classed also the moral imbeciles and the adults of both sexes who have graduated from the school department, or are past school age, but cannot safely be trusted, either for their own good or the good of the community, out from under strict and judicious surveillance. For these classes the institution provides a home where they may lead happy, harmless, useful lives.

The daily routine work of a large institution furnishes these trained adults with abundant opportunities for doing simple manual labor, which otherwise would have to be done by paid employees. Outside of an institution it would be impossible to secure the experienced and patient supervision and direction necessary to obtain practical, remunerative results from the comparatively unskilled labor of these feeble-minded people. In the institution the boys assist the baker, carpenter, and engineer. They do much of the shoemaking, the tailoring, and the painting. They drive teams, build roads, and dig ditches. Nearly all of the institutions have large farms and gardens, which supply enormous quantities of milk and vegetables for the consumption of the inmates. This farm and garden work is largely done by the adult male imbeciles. The females do the laundry work, make the clothing and bedding, and do a large share of all the other domestic work of these immense households. Many of these adult females, naturally kind and gentle, have the instinctive feminine love for children, and are of great assistance in caring for the feeble and crippled children in the custodial department. These simple people are much happier and better off in every respect when they know they are doing some useful and necessary work. Some of the restless moral imbeciles could hardly be controlled and managed if their surplus energies were not worked off by a reasonable amount of manual labor.

The average running expenses of these institutions have been gradually and largely reduced by this utilization of the industrial

abilities of the trained inmates. At the Pennsylvania institution the per capita cost for all the inmates has been reduced from $300 to a little over $100 per annum, largely from the fact that the work of caring for the low-grade children in the custodial department is done to a very large extent by the inmates themselves. Dr. Doren, of Ohio, after an experience of thirty years in this work, has offered, if the State will give him a thousand acres of land, to guarantee to care for every custodial case in Ohio without expense to the State.

Nearly all of the States making provision for the feeble-minded have practically followed what is known as the colony plan of organization; that is, starting with the school department as a centre, with the various subdivisions of the custodial department subsequently added under the same general management. Thus at the present time in nearly every one of our institutions there will be found custodial departments for each sex, industrial departments, hospitals for the sick, farm colonies, and in a few, buildings especially designed for the care and treatment of epileptics. In his report to the Nineteenth Conference of Charities Dr. G. H. Knight says: —

Legislatures to the contrary notwithstanding, it is not because superintendents covet large buildings, large grounds, and all the care and watchfulness that come from the proper management of what we call a colony, which makes them urge the gathering together of great numbers of this class of defectives, but because they have learned in the hard school of experience that they must have large numbers from which to draw children enough of equal mental endowments to do even the simplest thing well. They have found that, even for money, it is difficult to get suitable people who are willing to come into contact with the lowest grade in the right spirit, — a spirit which demands patience, cheerfulness, and affection. But they do find that what is called "the imbecile" will share his pleasures and attainments with his weaker brother with a sense of high privilege in being allowed to share it; that none make tenderer care-takers nor, under supervision, more watchful ones; and that the bond of fellowship so engendered is of lasting benefit. This is why the colony plan recommends itself to us as superintendents. Experience has taught us that these children, under careful direction, are happier, better cared for, more trustworthy when trust is given, more self-sacrificing and self-contained, and in every way benefited by the training and occupation and amusement which a large institution makes possible, and which it is impossible to gain when there are few in number.

The colony plan divides the institution into comparatively small families, each with peculiar and distinctive needs, and each group under the immediate and personal supervision of experienced and competent officers, who are directly responsible to the medical superintendent. This arrangement retains all the good points of a small institution, and secures the manifest advantages of a large one.

In the additions made to existing institutions and the new institutions built during the past twenty years, the detached or so-called "cottage" plan of construction has been pretty generally adopted, in order to secure the necessary classification and separation of the different classes of these defectives.

The experience of these institutions in these enlargements has been that plain, substantial, detached buildings can be provided for the custodial cases at an expense of not over $400 per capita. These detached departments are generally supplied with sewerage, water supply, laundry, store-room, and often heating facilities from a central plant, at relatively small expense compared with the cost of installation and operation of a separate plant for each division.

In New York a radical departure was made from this plan by the organization of the Custodial Asylum for Adult Feeble-minded Females at Newark, under a separate management. It was held that in that populous State, with its thousands of feeble-minded persons needing training and care, it would not be desirable or possible to attempt to provide for all classes of the feeble-minded in one institution. A similar special institution for imbecile women has since been organized in New Jersey.

The census of 1890 shows a total of 95,571 idiotic and feeble-minded persons in the United States. It is certain that this enumeration does not include many cases where the parents are unwilling to admit the mental defect of their children. It is safe to say that, taking the country as a whole, there are two feeble-minded persons to every thousand people. Of this vast number only 6,315, or six per cent, are now cared for in these special institutions.

The public appreciation of the educational, custodial, and preventive value of the work is shown by the willingness and liberality with which these institutions are maintained and supported. The remarkable rapidity with which in the Western States the public institutions of this character have been built and filled with pupils within the past two decades is proof positive of the necessity for the

organization of such institutions and of the desire of the parents and friends of this class of defectives to place them under intelligent care and instruction. This special care is now recognized as not only charitable, but economical and conservative. Each hundred dollars invested now saves a thousand in the next generation.

Sixteen States have now opened institutions for the feeble-minded. The State of Michigan, at the last session of the legislature, authorized the establishment of a school for this class. Active efforts have already been made to establish similar institutions in Wisconsin, Colorado, Missouri, Texas, Delaware, Virginia, and Georgia. It is not unreasonable to hope and expect that in the near future an institution for the feeble-minded will be provided in every State in the Union.

X.

The Insane.

PROGRESS IN THE CARE OF THE INSANE IN THE LAST TWENTY YEARS.

BY C. EUGENE RIGGS, A.M., M.D., CHAIRMAN.

The progress made in the care of the insane, in all its branches, may be divided — as, indeed, may all progress in any field — into the advance, first, in theory, then in practice. Writers upon the subject habitually divide the history of insanity into three periods, the first, and by far the longest, being the era of neglect, when the insane were such outcasts as lepers are, helpless and hunted, condemned by men as accursed of Heaven. The second was the era of detention, when, certain classes of the insane being recognized as unsafe persons to be at large, society protected itself against them by the enactment of such gracious laws as that English Vagrant Act, afterward closely copied in New York, which authorized "chains, if necessary." This was the era of dungeons, pits, and shower baths, and unspeakable cruelties, both of commission and omission. The third era is that in whose midst we now are, and to which the progress of the last twenty years belongs, in which it has been recognized that insanity is "a disease, and not a doom," — a disease as any other, sometimes susceptible of cure, often capable of amelioration, and always to be treated upon the same humane principles which govern the treatment of other diseases.

The date of the dawn of intelligence in the care of the insane in England may be set as about 1792, at which time the famous "Retreat" at York was founded through the exertions of William Tuke, the great-grandfather of the distinguished alienist, Dr. D. Hack Tuke; but it has been in this, as in all reforms, demanding an exercise of unadulterated altruism, — a far cry from the dawn to the noon hour.

The fight for the establishment of the principle of the humane treatment of the insane was made in England from 1792 to 1815, a period coincidental in France with the beneficent work of Pinel, whose efforts were re-enforced a little later by those of Esquirol. Since that time, both there and here, the battle for the increasingly intelligent application of that principle has been going on.

It is to be observed that the ideas and practices of the best asylum men in America fifty and sixty years ago were precisely the same as those of the best asylum men to-day, and that not merely in a general way, but very definitely. There are certain lines along which great progress has been made, which we are too prone to congratulate ourselves belongs exclusively to our own day and generation; but, on examination, it will be found that many of the substantial advances of the last double decade, of which we are justly proud, were foreshadowed and in a measure carried out by our fathers. One of the most distinctly modern advances is that in the character of the attendants employed in asylums; but, at the best, with the aid of training schools, civil service, and increased wages, we can hope to do no more than to come up to the requirements set forth by the superintendent of the asylum of the New York Hospital seventy-five years ago: "Those employed should be reasonable, humane, moral, and religious, possessing dignity and stability of character, mild and gentle in their temper and deportment, but resolute in their purposes and of great self-command; of just and sagacious observation, and endued with clear, unclouded minds; so compassionate and of such intelligence as not only to take an interest in the unhappy lot of the objects of their trust, but to be able to assist them in the recovery of their reason." Progress has been made in the realization of that ideal; and of this much belongs to the score of years this report covers, as we shall show.

The segregate system, toward which we have been working, has, in like manner, long been an ideal, though for many years a neglected one. Dr. Woodward, of Worcester, in his annual report for 1832, says that to their present accommodations should be added a building as a retreat for incurables, lodges for the violent and noisy, a hospital for curable cases, and a pleasant home for convalescents. We find, in certain asylums of that period, employment, non-restraint, and the system of personal freedom not only as strongly advocated, but as faithfully carried out as to-day.

In 1841 Dr. Bell of the McLean Asylum wrote thus regarding the use of restraint: "I beg leave to repeat the statement made in my report of 1840 of what the superintendents of English asylums choose to term the disuse of restraining means, that this improvement can never be introduced into this or, I believe, any of our Northern asylums for the reason that the evil has never existed in any of them. Common justice compels me to affirm that in just, kind, and enlightened management, and in judicious mental and moral treatment, considerable observation of institutions, both at home and abroad, satisfies me that no essential or considerable improvements have been made on the system first adopted at this institution. For some years the average number of patients under the restraint of leather mittens has not exceeded one per cent., and week after week elapses without a single instance."

These utterances, however, were, practically, but the voices of those crying in the wilderness, "Prepare ye the way!" The conditions were such as to forbid that the best ideas should be universally carried out and applied to all the insane, for the ample reason that public sentiment did not demand it. And this consideration leads us to the contemplation of one of the most fundamental advances of the last twenty years; namely, the educational process that has gone on in the minds of both the public and the profession in regard to the insane.

Many factors have contributed to a juster apprehension of the nature and needs of insanity on the part of the public. In the general diffusion of special knowledge, in which the common schools, newspapers, and magazines bear such a large share, the conviction of the profession that insanity is a physical disease has become public property. Most of us can remember what an alien, not to say accursed, thing a mind diseased seemed to our childhood. We trust and believe that the children of to-day are being educated to a different view. A general development of interest in the workings of the human mind is shown by the vastly increased popularity of psychological and psycho-physical studies to-day. Psychology is now taught in most of our schools; and we may find such books as Tuke's "Mind and Body," Maudesley's "Responsibility in Mental Disease," and James's "Psychology" not only on the shelves of the alienist, but also in the hands of high school and collegiate students as reference books. The unfolding of the new science of sociology

and the revival of interest in political economy have been calling the attention of thoughtful minds to the problems insanity presents on its social and economic sides. The death of Miss Dix, to whom the insane owe so much, a few years ago, and the publication of widely read memoirs of her life and work, gave a prominence to the philanthropic relations of insanity in the minds of very many whose attention it might otherwise have escaped. It was about twenty years ago, it may be noted in passing, that Miss Dix made a memorable tour of all the Western institutions, created largely by her efforts of thirty years before.

All the influences enumerated, and doubtless many more, have combined to produce that something, impalpable in its essence, but sternly practical in its results,—a change in public feeling.

In all this educational process the action and reaction between the profession and the public has, of course, been constant. As the ideas of the alienists, the philanthropists, the psychologists, and the students of political economy have filtered down into the public mind, these professions have, in turn, been recruited from the ranks of a body of young men whose interest in the problems involved has, almost unconsciously, been keenly stimulated. Especially is this true of the medical profession. The knowledge of the average general practitioner about insanity has improved in many ways. Twenty years ago, say those who are competent to judge, the differential diagnosis of the various types of insanity by the medical profession at large was not made at all, or very crudely made. Acute mania, melancholia, and dementia were recognized as constituting an all-sufficient classification. In the medical schools, even the most advanced, but little attention was given to mental diseases; and no sort of proficiency was required in this particular on the part of graduates in medicine. In the profession at large, at that time, the primary localization of origin of nervous functions was only beginning to be considered; and what few assertions were, at that time, made by Ferrier and others, in this direction, were accepted as hypotheses rather than as proven facts. Insanity was simply insanity, and nothing more. "The wild look of the eye," coupled with extraordinary behavior and expression, was accepted very generally as the pathognomic symptom. The paretic had "softening of the brain," as did also the paralytic dement. Careful sifting of a hundred average medical libraries would scarcely find a single mono-

graph upon mental alienation. At the present day, as the effect of the gradually increasing opportunity for the study of mental disease, in schools and hospitals, and of an immense increase in literature upon the subject, the profession at large has been gradually brought to take a larger interest in regard to the matter in question, so that, at the present time, though the mass of physicians can by no means as yet be said to be instructed in nervous or mental diseases, yet there is at least a constant and increasing demand for information, and positive effort is more and more being made to acquire practical knowledge in this direction. Medical periodicals devote more space than formerly to the discussion of mental and nervous diseases. The brilliant results accomplished by neurologists within this period, in relation to the nervous system, have attracted the attention, particularly of the newer men, to a closer study of mental alienation and its allied phenomena. Gradually, the importance of psychiatry has been recognized in the schools; and in a number of them most excellent work is being done in these branches. Among the schools which have given the subject especial attention may be mentioned Rush Medical College and the more progressive schools of Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and St. Louis, the Johns Hopkins School, the medical department of the University of Minnesota, and others both east and west. One very practical advance in methods of instruction is in the visitation of asylums by the graduating classes of medical schools. In this way the students obtain some idea of the clinical aspect of different forms of disease, of treatment, and a general impression of modern asylum methods.

Another practical educating influence in some States has been the improved blanks for physicians' certificates where these are required. Whereas, formerly, a physician's certificate was a most formal and uninstructive document, it is now expected, in the States which have made most advance in the matter, that there will be definite reasons set down for the conclusions which the physicians reach, thus involving an analysis of the case. In the State of Indiana not only is this done and a full history of the life of the individual taken, but also, as far as possible, the history of those related by consanguinity, collaterally and directly, as far back as may be known, is set forth, thus making of each blank a study in heredity. The same thing is true of Michigan and Illinois, and, doubtless, of other States. This is done through the voluntary efforts of the medical men in and out of the insane hospitals.

Commitment, Judicial and Voluntary.

As in the beginning the confinement of the insane was purely for the protection of society against persons whom it was found dangerous to permit abroad, with no reference to the well-being of the persons so confined, the question of their arrest and detention was a subject for judicial consideration only. This is vividly shown by the English Vagrant Act previously alluded to.

With this fundamental idea in view, the improvements which were made in the commitment laws for a long time were chiefly directed toward throwing safeguards around the sane and protecting the liberty of the individual, making the commitment laws so rigid as to obviate the danger of the detention of a sane man as insane. We see this idea pushed to its extreme where commitment is by trial by jury, and the presence of the individual "charged" with insanity is required in the court. The pleasing spectacle is presented of sick men or women brought into court, it may be from their beds, to prove their illness before a jury of their "peers" before they can obtain admission to a hospital where, possibly, if the ordeal for entrance through which they have passed has not too greatly disturbed them, they may obtain relief. That the danger of incarceration of the sane is infinitely less than sensationalists have represented it to be is shown by the statement of the Earl of Shaftesbury, who was chairman of the English Commission in Lunacy for fifty years, made before a committee of Parliament, that, though the number of certificates which had passed through their office was more than one hundred and eighty-five thousand, there was not one person who was not shut up on good *prima facie* evidence that he ought to be under care and treatment. Doctors Ordronaux and Smith, State Commissioners in New York from 1873 to 1888, stated that during the fifteen years covered by their terms of service no case of illegal detention had occurred in the State; and the Inspector of hospitals in Massachusetts made a similar statement. However, the law is always conservative; and the supremacy of the judicial element in the matter of the commitment of the insane remained — it may be said remains — long after it has been demonstrated that the question is one which calls primarily for a physician's verdict. In many States the commitment laws have remained essentially the

same for the last twenty years. Where important changes have been made, they have, however, generally, though not always, been in the direction of recognizing the fundamental necessity for a medical decision as a basis, and the securing that that decision shall proceed from a competent authority. There are still several States in which the insane are committed by the barbarity of a jury trial. In Illinois (Statutes 1888) and Colorado (1883) it is obligatory in all cases, and the presence of the patient at the trial is demanded. In Kentucky (1881), where there is an inquest by jury, the presence of the patient may be dispensed with on the oath of two physicians that his condition is such that it may be unsafe to bring him into court. The statutes of Wyoming (1887) permit the Probate Court summoning the jury to require or dispense with the presence of the patient at discretion. In Maryland (1888), Mississippi (1880), Missouri (1889), Montana (1887), Nevada (1889), and New Mexico (1884) no stipulation is made upon this point in the statute; and certain of these States also provide for other methods of commitment. The State of Washington provides for jury trial if demanded by the insane person himself or by any one in his behalf. In the larger number of States commitment is by the decision of a judge or justice of the peace. Medical testimony is usually required, although in three States it is not demanded. In a limited number of States only is there commitment based on a physician's certificate. As the true nature of insanity is thereby recognized, this may be considered as the most scientific method. The laws of the States in which this recognition obtains, with the dates of their enactment or revision, are as follows: —

Of the two methods of commitment in Rhode Island, one (1884–85) provides simply "whenever it shall appear, by the written certificate of two practising physicians of good standing, that any pauper within the State is insane and may be benefited by curative treatment, the agent of the State Charities and Corrections, with the written consent of the governor, may place such pauper in the Butler Hospital for the Insane." In Georgia (1882) paying patients may be admitted "by a certificate of three respectable physicians and two respectable citizens." Vermont (1880) provides for admission upon certificate of two physicians of "unquestioned integrity and skill," accompanied by the certificate of the Probate Judge of the district in which the physicians reside that such is their charac-

ter. The physicians' certificate is only to be given upon careful examination made not more than five days previous to its date, a fine being imposed for the signature of a certificate without such examination. One form of admission in Texas (1879) required a written request for admission under oath from parent, guardian, or other person interested, accompanied by the affidavit of a physician as to insanity, and the attested certificate of the county judge that the physician is respectable and in regular practice. The laws of Pennsylvania (1873–83) also provide for commitment by the legal guardians or friends of the insane on a physician's certificate after an examination, and when duly sworn to before some magistrate or judge. The New York law (1890) holds, nicely poised, the balance between the medical and judicial elements in commitment, so that each receives due recognition. In this respect it is, perhaps, the model law. It provides that no person can be admitted to an institution for the care and treatment of the insane except upon a medical certificate of lunacy, made jointly by two physicians under a form prescribed by the State Commission in Lunacy. The statute provides that only such physicians as have been properly certified by a judge of a court of record to be of reputable character, graduates of some incorporated medical college, permanent residents of the State, and in actual practice of their profession for at least three years, are qualified to make out the certificate of lunacy, and that only after a certified copy of their certificate of qualification has been filed in the office of the State Commission in Lunacy. A medical certificate prepared by either one or both physicians whose certificate of qualification had not been filed with the Commission is void by the statute, and a re-examination must be had. There must be a final examination of the patient on the same day by both certifying physicians, and the date of the final examination is the date of the certificate. A patient can be admitted any time within ten days after the date of the certificate. The certificate must be approved by a judge of a court of record in the county or judicial district where the patient may be or reside; but a patient may be admitted provisionally for not longer than five days upon the certificate alone, prior to its approval. This last provision supplies the need of an "emergency commitment."

The recognition of the need of emergency commitment is, it may be observed, one of the advances of the last twenty years. Obvi-

ously, the commitment laws should be so framed as, while preserving the liberty of the subject, to admit of the prompt sequestration of the patient, if dangerous to himself or others, or if in a critical condition, such as the acute delirious mania in puerperal insanity. This advance is not yet general. The commitment laws of Massachusetts were altered in 1879 by enacting that every insane person, when committed to an asylum or hospital, whether public or private, should be held there under the orders of some court, based upon evidence of which the testimony of two physicians is an essential part, to the effect that the person alleged to be insane is really in that condition, and, further, that he is in need of the restraint of a hospital. This was amended in 1881, to permit the emergency commitment of insane persons upon the certificate of two physicians for five days, without judicial commitment, and also to permit of voluntary commitment. Notices of both emergency and voluntary commitments are immediately sent to the State Board. A bill now before the Illinois legislature provides for a period of not more than ten days' emergency commitment.

Any account of the advances made in methods of commitment would be incomplete without mention of the work done by Dr. Stephen Smith and the Special Committee upon Commitment and Detention appointed at the meeting of this body in 1887. Through their efforts State committees were formed in twenty-one different States, the results of whose efforts included the establishment of the New York and New Hampshire Lunacy Commissions and improvements in the commitment laws of several States. The New York law, as given above, is almost identical, as far as it goes, with Dr. Smith's proposed universal commitment law, from which also are taken some features of the recent lunacy legislation in Minnesota, notably the five grounds for commitment to custody enumerated: (1) that an individual has committed acts dangerous to himself or others, (2) that he has dangerous or uncontrollable impulses toward crimes, (3) that he wanders about and is exposed to want of food or shelter or to accident, (4) that he is ill-treated by relatives or friends, (5) that his disease is of such a nature or at such a stage as to require for his recovery care and treatment while under legal restraint.

Voluntary commitment is an innovation of the last twelve years, and is at present provided for by statute in three States only. The

reasons that may be urged in its favor are many. It offers to those upon the borderland of insanity or to those in its early stages whose certificates of a judicial commitment a physician might hesitate to sign an opportunity to take advantage of hospital treatment at precisely the stage of the disease when it would be, probably, of the most value, and this without the stigma of insanity attaching itself to them. Patients will go voluntarily to an asylum as to an ordinary hospital in this manner, when they would not submit to judicial commitment, and when, possibly, a strong case could not be made out for it.

"It has been everywhere observed," says Dr. Chapin in the report of the Pennsylvania Hospital for 1891, "that the so-called lunacy agitation and stricter forms of legal commitment have been followed by reduced admissions, a diminution of recent cases, and an increase of the chronic class." It is obvious that it is a financial disadvantage as well as a misfortune to the individual to permit curable cases to become chronic; and, if strict commitment laws must be enacted for the preservation of individual liberty, they should be set off by the privilege of voluntary commitment.

In Massachusetts voluntary commitment has existed since 1881, admission being given to those who could not legally be committed, detention not to be longer than three days after notice has been given in writing of intention to leave. The law is essentially the same as the voluntary commitment law of Scotland, which has been found to work admirably. The working of the law has given perfect satisfaction in Massachusetts. Dr. Cowles, of McLean Asylum, pronounces it to be a blessing. At that institution about one-third of the admissions are voluntary, and there has been thirty-eight per cent. of recoveries reported upon these admissions. The Pennsylvania Lunacy Law of 1883 provided for voluntary commitment, detention to be for a period of not longer than seven days, with the privilege of renewal from time to time, the mental condition of the applicant (whether a subject for judicial commitment or not) not being specified in the act. The Pennsylvania law has not, however, resulted in the large proportion of voluntary commitments which are reported from Massachusetts. In Connecticut, the third State in which the law is being tried, the same is true. The provisions of the Connecticut law are identical with those of Massachusetts. In Maryland the law is so construed as to permit of voluntary com-

mitment to private asylums, patients being detained for a period specified by written agreement, not exceeding three months. This agreement may be extended from time to time by renewal.

The question has been discussed in other States. In the report of the New York Lunacy Commission for 1891 it was pronounced against, as far as public institutions are concerned, on the grounds that the State has never yet been able to provide sufficient accommodations for such of its wards as are legally insane, and, second, that it might lead to the admission of those suffering simply from nervous disorders. This, however, has not been found to be the case wherever the plan has been tried. Dr. George H. Savage, well known as an English alienist, and formerly senior physician of the Bethlem Royal Hospital, writing for the purposes of this report an account of recent advances in the treatment of the insane in England, says on this matter: "Further freedom of admission was extended, so that a larger number of persons who felt the need of care and seclusion were admitted on their written request as voluntary boarders. My principle was to admit any person, whatever his mental state, if he were capable of asking for admission and recognized what he was doing. I understood that each patient admitted under certificates was a person not only of unsound mind, but unfit to direct his treatment: thus any man, mad though he were, if he asked to be admitted, was admitted. The Commissioners in Lunacy are inclined to object to any person's being received as a voluntary boarder who can be certified. The only possible drawback to the admission of such patients is that they often become too mad to stay, and have to be certified into the asylum into which they came freely. This might lead to danger; but I believe the extension of the plan will be found to benefit both the public and the patient."

An advance akin to voluntary commitment, in that it is defined as a preventive measure, is the establishment of out-patient departments in hospitals for the insane, upon the English plan, for the free treatment of the acute insane in the incipient stages of their disease. Such a service was opened in the Pennsylvania Hospital for the Insane in 1885. It places within the reach of those who have experienced premonitory indications of insanity and who otherwise might not be able to secure it proper treatment and advice at the critical period when it will be of most avail to them. As a service of this sort is not open to the objections which have been raised against

voluntary commitment, and yet benefits to an extent the same class, it seems very desirable that the example set by the Pennsylvania Hospital should be widely followed. The prevention of insanity should receive at least as much attention as its cure, as it is the more hopeful field of the two in which to reap a harvest of healthy minds. In London there has been established a dispensary for the treatment of these diseases, under the care of a resident interne and two or three visiting physicians. It is supported by voluntary contributions, with a long list of distinguished patrons and patronesses. Such a work undertaken either as a public or a private charity cannot be too highly praised.

The matter of temporary accommodation for the insane, while the question of commitment is pending or during delay after commitment, is one of importance. In some of our large cities relief is given by houses of detention, usually established by municipal ordinance. In others, however, there is as yet no such provision. Delay may occur from many causes, and in the mean time often the only available place of detention may be the city or county jail. This is not only unjust and degrading on general principles, but may be the cause of serious ill-consequences to the patient. It would be well if the example of Australia were more generally followed in America. In Melbourne and elsewhere they have lunacy wards in the public hospitals, and thus no time is lost in treating cases at the critical period. The detention hospitals, as they exist in our great cities, are a step in advance; but in some of them there is still room for further improvement in the divorcing of the appointments made in connection with them from the workings of local politics, as the experience derived from the working of the Detention Hospital in Chicago clearly indicates.

State and County Care.

Another direction in which the advance in the handling of the insane has been gradual but steady, and the results accomplished notable, is in the growth of State care.

It has been said that a new era was begun in the care of the insane with the establishment of State Boards of Charities. Now, while the State Board of Massachusetts was established in 1863, and that of New York in 1867, the remaining seven of the nine that par-

ticipated in the first meeting of this body — namely, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Kansas — were established in 1869–73. At that time there were, practically, in each State two methods of caring for the insane: first, a State system, managed by State officers and responsible to the State; second, a county system, managed by county authorities and responsible to no one. The State institutions were designed for the care of acute cases; and the practice was in vogue of discharging and removing the incurables from the asylums to the poorhouses of those counties from which they came or where they could be shown to have a settlement, to make room for fresh cases in the asylums, which otherwise would have become choked with the accumulation of chronic cases. All the asylums received paying patients. These, however, whether they became chronic cases or not, were not very frequently returned to county care, so that in some places an accumulation of chronic paying patients shut out from the hospitals intended for the acute indigent cases, to a great extent, those for whom they were designed.

Of the condition of the insane thus relegated to almshouses throughout the United States we may gain a general and dispassionate idea from the admirable "Report on Lunatic Asylums," made in 1868 by Frederic Norton Manning, of New South Wales, who was commissioned by the government to visit the principal asylums of Great Britain, the Continent, and America, and report upon them with reference to the remodelling of the New South Wales asylums. He says, "The amount of restraint is excessive, the number of attendants small, the accommodation most defective, and the means of employment and occupation almost absent." This condition of things he refers to "a parsimony which is, happily, a rare thing in the noble institutions for the insane in the United States."

Through the abuses to which county care almost invariably gave rise, and through the efforts of the State Boards to correct such abuses, the idea of State care for all of the insane became strengthened. It was seen that not otherwise could this unfortunate class receive the treatment to which their condition entitled them, and each miserable failure in the experiment of county care only deepened the impression.

At that time, of State asylums for the acute insane in New England, Maine, New Hampshire, and Connecticut had each one, and

Massachusetts four. In Rhode Island and Vermont two private institutions answered the purpose of State asylums. Pennsylvania had three, and New York two, exclusive of the Criminal Asylum. Out of a total of about sixty State institutions for the insane in the United States, there were three designed for the care of the chronic insane; namely, the insane department of the State Almshouse at Tewksbury, Mass., under almshouse management, Willard Asylum, managed by a board of trustees and medical officers, and the Rhode Island Asylum on the State Farm at Cranston, under the management of the State Board. These institutions were still regarded as being in the experimental stage, the question of both the possibility and the advisability of State care for the chronic as well as the acute insane being still an open one. Outside of these three institutions, and exclusive of such chronic cases as were retained at the State hospitals contrary to the design of those institutions, the rest of the chronic indigent insane of the United States were in poorhouses, in town or county care. The question of the desirability, or rather necessity, of State supervision, however, was admittedly settled, as is shown by the supervisory and in some cases executive functions conferred upon the State Boards, so many of which were organized about this time.

The history of the growth of State care in New York is instructive, as showing the difficulty in an old, rich, and populous State of carrying its admitted theories into action. New York was the first State to recognize the obligation of the State to care for all of its indigent insane. It has been believed to be the settled policy of New York to care ultimately for all classes of its insane under State management since the act providing for the erection of Willard Asylum, and the transfer to it of chronic insane from the counties, twenty-eight years ago; yet, though this end has always been kept in view, not until October, 1893, will this long-anticipated consummation be, at last, an achieved fact.

At the time of the opening of Willard, in 1869, there were fifteen hundred insane persons in New York in county care, "in a wretched and deplorable condition." Six years later we find, from the report of the State Board, that Willard is full, and there are still thirteen hundred remaining in county institutions. There has always been a division of opinion in New York, as elsewhere, upon the subject of how to care for the chronic insane, the principle of State care being

granted. Some advocated the multiplication of hospitals, in which the acute and chronic cases should be cared for together; others recommended the extension of Willard or the erection of two or three similar institutions; others proposed the grafting of detached buildings for the chronic patients upon the hospitals for the acute insane. In the mean time the number of the insane was increasing beyond the enlarged power of the State to care for them, though new asylums were built; and the State Board, as it was permitted by the act of 1871 to do, was reluctantly obliged to authorize the care of their own insane by many counties, in order to legalize the inevitable. In certain of these counties, which had been empowered by special legislation to care for their own insane in asylums, the Board made visits, but had no authority to prescribe rules. The larger number of exempted counties, however, were subject to the rules of the Board, which, as laid down, called for medical supervision, a resident physician where the number of patients was more than one hundred, and a physician making daily visits where the number was less, not less than one attendant to every twenty patients, diet, restraint, amusements, occupations, classification, etc., to conform as nearly as possible to the standard of Utica or Willard. These admirable requirements were, very frequently, not met, however; and, notwithstanding the improvement brought about by the work of the Board, we find in the report for 1878 the statement: "The results obtained by the counties in the care of their chronic insane have not been, on the whole, satisfactory to the Board. The number of the insane, in most counties, is too small to warrant the erection of suitable buildings and the employment of proper attendants. The frequent changes of officers and false views of economy operate against any systematic plan for the care and oversight of the insane, and it is only by persistent and continued effort that a proper standard can be maintained." Again, in 1880, and more despairingly, regarding the increase of chronic cases: "Unless the State extends its accommodations for this class, the work must be undertaken by the counties. This, it is believed, would be a public calamity, as experience has fully shown that the efforts of the counties to provide for their insane have in most cases proved failures."

With the opening of the asylums at Buffalo and Binghamton (at the time of its erection designed exclusively for chronic cases) the pressure was somewhat relieved; but many insane still remained in county care, in a wretchedly ill-managed condition.

In 1889 a strong and efficient Lunacy Commission was established, with extensive powers and authority far beyond that enjoyed by the British Commission. One of the results has been to render possible the passage of the "State Care" act of 1890, by which the State assumed charge of all the pauper and indigent insane except in the counties of New York and Kings, thus removing them at last and entirely from county establishments. The method of provision for which the act calls is the erection of detached buildings, to contain not less than ten nor more than one hundred and fifty patients, upon the grounds of the existing asylums.

The organization of the State institutions, in the various States, has been such, and the oversight of them so slight, or in some cases non-existent, that in the early part of the twenty years under consideration the officers of them, as a natural result, were sometimes led to an arbitrary habit of mind This tendency produced a reaction in some States in the direction of more strict supervision, which has taken in New York the form of the very liberal mandatory and executive powers bestowed upon the State Board. These institutions in those States which have had an advisory Board of Charities (such as Ohio, Illinois, Minnesota, Pennsylvania) have worked out the problem of the care of the insane in a creditable manner, it being understood that at times, in Ohio, the frequent changes in the political complexion have seriously interfered with the efficient management of institutions; and the same thing is more recently illustrated in Illinois. The experience in most of the above-named States in giving a Board of Charities supervision of the financial management, in comparing, tabulating, and reporting to the public their expenses, has been productive of a healthy economical feeling. In Pennsylvania State care has been often and strongly urged, but it is not yet an entirely accomplished fact. The immeasurable improvement in the condition of the insane in that State in the last twenty years has been gradually brought about by what may be termed the persuasive policy of the State Board and its unwearied efforts in behalf of the insane.

What the nature of the improvement has been we may gather from comparing passages from the reports of the State Boards at the beginning and end of the period we are considering. In 1872 we find the statement: "At least five-eighths of the insane are in almshouses or uncared for in any institution whatever." "It is im-

possible, from the circumstances which characterize the whole arrangement, discipline, and government of such institutions, that these invalids can be otherwise than grossly neglected and foully wronged; for, at best, they are merely confined in places of detention under the guardianship of a respectable overseer, who is wholly ignorant both of their disease and of the means necessary for its alleviation and cure. We say at the best. We hesitate to describe the reverse of the picture. It is hardly fair to claim that we have passed beyond the ignorance and barbarity of the Middle Ages in our consideration and care of this class of unfortunates, so long as we suffer the glaring abuses which are prevalent in our midst to go unredressed." Again, in 1873: "The story can never grow old so long as the subject-matter itself remains a fresh and living reality. There is but one voice in the case. No intelligent person has ever made a general visitation of the prisons and almshouses of this State without being startled and almost overwhelmed by the forlorn and hopeless and sometimes horrible condition of their inmates. . . . The shocking and sickening revelations so graphically set forth in the memorial by Miss Dix to the legislature of 1845 are not yet obsolete." The general agent of the Board reports that year concerning the insane in almshouses: "They are totally neglected, morally, physically, and mentally. Less attention is given to them than would be given to the lowest animals." Among the instances cited is that of one almshouse where there were twenty-two insane. "Twelve are kept in close confinement, some in chains, one always chained to the ceiling to prevent him from tearing his clothes, some entirely nude, at least six with straw litters. Not one of the twelve is ever removed into the open air."

From this picture it is a relief to turn to the more recent reports and read regarding the condition of such as are still retained in almshouses: "The majority of these are in the larger and better equipped county institutions, having a hospital organization, resident medical officers, salaried attendants, and an improved and improving quality of care. Under such conditions there can be no objection to the reception of the insane into the better class of almshouses until more suitable provision can be furnished. While the quality of care necessarily varies among those now containing insane, it may be said that they are in fairly good condition, on the whole, to meet the requirements of the chronic insane, while some are quite up to

a good hospital standard. In the latter it is most satisfactory to observe that the tendency of officers and directors is toward further improvement from year to year." Pennsylvania has, furthermore, near completion a great institution for the chronic insane, which, when ready for occupancy, will probably contain the great part, if not all, of those now in almshouses.

Did space permit it, it would be interesting and instructive to trace this improvement to a satisfactory state of things in almshouse care through the twenty years of its accomplishment, as it can be traced in the always frank reports of the Board. It may be mentioned, however, that it was largely accomplished by means of the untiring and persistent oversight which the Board caused to be exercised. The legislature, in 1874, supplemented the act creating the State Board by a bill empowering it to appoint county visitors, and to transfer any insane person in any county or district almshouse, who could not receive proper care and treatment or was probably curable, to a State hospital. The supervision of the county visitors proved to be very useful, and the standard of care soon improved greatly. The Board continued to urge the removal of as many cases as possible to the State institutions, and in 1880 three hundred were so removed. As, however, the counties which sent their insane to the State hospitals had to defray not only the entire cost of maintenance, but were also required to pay for clothing and incidentals, the counties in general refused, as far as possible, to transfer their insane to State care because of the additional expense involved. The State, accordingly, came to the rescue, and, in order to encourage such removals, agreed in 1883 to provide suitable maintenance at a minimum cost, the counties paying one-half the entire cost of maintenance. In 1888 but twelve of the almshouses of the State were reported as containing insane, as against thirty to forty of a few years previous.

By the Lunacy Law of 1883 the State Board was given the supervision of all houses or places in which any person of unsound mind is detained, whenever the occupant of the house or person having charge of a lunatic receives any compensation for the custody, control, or attendance, other than as an attendant or nurse, and also of all houses or places in which more than one person is detained, with or without compensation paid for custody or attendance. There being some agitation about the alleged ill-treatment of insane in

private houses, the Committee on Lunacy issued private circulars of inquiry to all the prominent physicians of the State, asking if they knew of any such cases. Many answers were received, and the reported cases were investigated, and, as a result, a number of insane persons removed to the State hospitals.

The history of the care of the insane in these two States may be considered in a manner typical. The course of reform in nearly all of the States has been along similar lines, whether it has ultimated, as in New York, in the complete attainment of State care for the indigent insane, or whether, as in Pennsylvania, that end is still a result hoped for in the near future, a condition of things having been brought about in the mean time which makes it permissible to defer the formal assumption of the entire charge of the insane by the State for a time.

In eight or ten States, at present, the State professes to care for all of its insane (both indigent and well-to-do); but in many of these the accommodations are as yet confessedly insufficient, and a certain proportion are still in county institutions. In several other States the attempt is made to care for all of the indigent insane, those who are able being paying patients in the State institutions. In the larger number of States, State, counties, and cities share the charge among them. The drift of public sentiment, however, is strongly toward State care, as opposed to county care. Any step looking in any other direction is regarded as a distinct retrogression. This feeling is illustrated by an incident mentioned in the last report of the Maryland Lunacy Commission. The commissioners of Baltimore County having decided to build an insane asylum as an annex to the almshouse, not only did the Lunacy Commission enter a strong protest, but the citizens of the county promptly petitioned for an injunction to restrain the county commissioners from carrying out their purpose.

"State care," as treated up to this point, has been used in contradistinction to county care; but it is also sometimes used to mean State as distinguished from private care. It should perhaps be stated that the New York "State Care" act contemplates only the public or indigent insane, the matter of private or pay patients being entirely unconsidered in it, and being left precisely as before; *i.e.*, the admission of paying patients, when there is room and it seems advisable, to the discretion of the hospital superintendent. The Lu-

nacy Commission, feeling that this permission was open to abuse, in that private patients were sometimes received into State hospitals, where, in consideration of a sum which would not have secured such accommodations in private institutions, they occupied individually an amount of room and required an amount of service much greater than that accorded to the ordinary patient, issued an order that on and after Oct. 1, 1890, no private patient at any State hospital be permitted to occupy more than one room or to command the exclusive services of an attendant, and that thereafter no distinction should be allowed between public and private patients in respect of the care and accommodations allowed them, and also that thereafter private patients should be admitted to State hospitals strictly in accordance with the statute and upon order granted by the State Commission.

Of the States which purpose caring for indigent and well-to-do alike, the only one which has succeeded in doing away with county care also is Minnesota, which actually cares, in State hospitals, for all of her insane, of whatever class of society or mental condition.

Enough has been said to show the gain made in the principles and practice of State care in the last twenty years. Mention should be made, however, of two marked variations in the method of administering State care, which are innovations in the last twelve years.

In Massachusetts, which has also in process of erection a large asylum for chronic cases, an attempt has been made to naturalize the Scotch system of boarding out of the chronic insane. The system was inaugurated by the State Board. In 1885 an act was passed permitting the boarding of the chronic and quiet insane at sums not exceeding $3.25 per week, such insane so boarded at the expense of the Commonwealth to be visited not less than once in every three months, and all insane who are boarded out at the expense of towns and cities, and whose address is made known to the Board, to be visited not less than once in six months. The law further requires the removal to a hospital or some better boarding-place of all who, upon visitation, are found to be neglected, abused, or improperly cared for. The successful working of the system demands not only a careful selection of the patient and also of the family, but a mutual adaptation of each to the other

and vigilant supervision by State authorities. Applications for boarders are filed, and the families applying are visited and carefully examined. It is customary to obtain the consent of patients to the change when they are sufficiently intelligent, and in all cases the consent of their friends is secured. More women are boarded out than men, and they are generally preferred as boarders. Twice as many approved families have made application for boarding patients as have been supplied with them; and on this side there would seem to be no difficulty in extending the system. It has not, however, been tried upon any very extensive scale, and probably will not be in the immediate future, although there has been a gradual yearly increase in the average number of patients so cared for from twenty-one in 1886 to one hundred and sixty-eight in 1892. As far as it has gone, the trial may be said to be a success; but the difficulty of finding suitable patients and the amount of supervision required, which necessarily involves an outlay making the cost of maintenance at least equal to that in the hospitals, are factors which tend to limit development to not much more than its present extent. Thus far no State has followed the example of Massachusetts; but the Lunacy Law enacted in Minnesota this winter contains a provision for the boarding out of chronic cases very similar to that of the Massachusetts law. The success which has attended this system in Scotland will be more likely to be approximated in this country when the population becomes more dense and the ignorant misunderstanding and fear of insanity are further corrected.

Another variation in the form of State care — it is usually, indeed, referred to as a system of county care — is that inaugurated by the Wisconsin State Board for the care of the chronic insane in county institutions under State supervision.

The Wisconsin Board was established in 1871. Before its organization the condition of the chronic insane in poorhouses was an awful one, as the reports, repeating the horrors of the New York and Pennsylvania reports, show. It is needless to repeat here any detailed description of the abuses with which, indeed, most of the early reports of the various State Boards dealt. At first the Board recommended the enlargement of existing institutions. Within the six years succeeding the organization of the Board the State nearly trebled its hospital capacity, but there still remained very many of the insane under poorhouse care. The condition of the latter, how-

ever, had so materially improved under inspection that the gentlemen composing the State Board were encouraged to believe that proper care for the able-bodied insane might be had in county institutions. A law was passed providing that, whenever, in the opinion of the Board of Charities, there was insufficient provision for the insane in the State hospitals and county asylums, they might file with the Secretary of State a list of those counties possessing accommodations for the proper care of the chronic insane, and that thereafter each of said counties which should care for its chronic insane under such rules as the Board might prescribe, on the properly verified certificate of the Board to the Secretary of State, would receive the sum of $1.50 per week for each person so cared for. Under this law were erected the small county asylums of Wisconsin. It further provided that a county possessing accommodations for a greater number of the insane than belonged to it could receive such additional insane as the Board might direct, receiving therefor the sum of $3 per week, $1.50 being paid by the State and $1.50 by the county to which the individual belongs. As the average cost of support in these institutions proves to be $1.70 per week, it will be seen that the law practically offers a premium to the counties making provision for their own insane.

These asylums may or may not be erected in connection with the county almshouses, although they usually are. The county supervisors provide for the erection of buildings and make appropriations for improvements, repairs, and current expenses. They elect three trustees, who have immediate control; and these elect the superintendent and asylum physician. Building plans are submitted to the Board. The normal capacity of the asylums is limited to not less than fifty or more than one hundred. The fact that the Board holds the purse-strings of the State treasury tends to bring about a compliance with their rules. These demand sufficient light, warmth, ventilation, and cleanliness in the buildings, a sitting-room for each sex in addition to sleeping-rooms, airing courts for each sex, and a sufficient number of special attendants, regular occupation for all as far as possible, the limitation of restraint to extreme cases, the keeping of a daily record book of persons in restraint and reasons given, "intelligence, humanity, and correct habits" on the part of the overseer and his wife and all employees having charge of the insane, thorough inspection by the county physician no less than once in

every two weeks, reports from the county physician and overseer to the Board.

The obvious objections to the Wisconsin institutions are that they are practically governed by the county supervisors, and they are managed, as all business done by county supervisors is managed, from the standpoint of business as distinguished from that of benevolence, which has its essential function in dealing with the insane as with all classes of helpless and defective individuals. The physician employed for the insane is engaged in the same way, and performs his work for the insane in the same manner as for the paupers; and he is necessarily not a man of experience and knowledge of the insane and their care. The arrangement and construction of the buildings are often such as to be decidedly open to criticism from a sanitary and economic point of view.

Under the supervision of an active and energetic Board in entire sympathy with the system, however, it has proved satisfactory in the main to the people of Wisconsin.

Advances promoting the Liberty and Comfort of the Insane.

When all such questions of detail as are taken up in this report have been discussed and sifted, it will be seen that there underlies all progress in the treatment of the insane a recognition of the fundamental principle, not only humanitarian, but philosophic, that the insane man is still a man, entitled, as far as his condition will permit, not only to life, but to "liberty and the pursuit of happiness." I say, as far as his condition will permit; for, in the words of Dr. Hack Tuke, the first consideration by which advances must be tested is their security, the security of the patient from injury which he may do to himself or to others. In giving the patient more liberty with equal safety, and in rendering possible for him a more normal life, the advances in the last twenty years have been more marked than in all the years preceding since first insanity was recognized as a disease. Said Dr. Shew, writing upon the progress in the care of the insane during the double decade from 1865 to 1885: "The point gained is not the mere disuse of restraint nor the reform of gross abuses. It is the general recognition of a fact that the treatment and management of the insane is a matter of scientific

inquiry and experiment, and, consequently, always and forever susceptible of improvement. The result has been what might naturally have been expected when men begin to aim at something beyond an old routine. Every year has witnessed some new advance; and, looking back, it is easy to discern broad intervals between the jail-like structure and the commodious hospital, between the harsh keeper and the courteous attendant, between the discomfort of needless restraint and the enjoyment of the largest liberty compatible with the end in view."

The practical advance in giving liberty to the insane has been in the direction of the abolition of restraint, the establishment of open wards, and the giving of paroles. In estimating the decrease of restraint used, we may eliminate from consideration the former condition of affairs in almshouses where the lack of proper attendance necessitated mechanical or chemical control to prevent injury to the patients themselves or others. Undoubtedly, mechanical restraint was subject to great abuses in such cases; and even where it was not so abused the appliances were usually at hand. We note, in the report of the New York State Board for 1882 that in the sixteen "excepted" counties visited there were thirty-nine cribs, thirty restraining chairs, forty-eight muffs, forty-three camisoles, thirty handcuffs, eight shackles, forty-six wristlets and waist belts.

As regards the amount of restraint formerly used in American asylums and hospitals for the insane, the subject has been a much discussed one. American superintendents, generally, regarding absolute non-restraint as a "counsel of perfection," declined to commit themselves to the doctrine as a body. In many asylums, however, as has been shown, it was practised forty or fifty years ago under the guidance of men who were leaders in their profession. The refusal of the Association of American Superintendents to put themselves on record against it brought with it much English denunciation, especially in the columns of the *Lancet*, where we find in 1875 the statement that "it is surprising, but unhappily it is notorious, that in the United States the treatment of lunatics can hardly be said to have made much progress, even in the stage of development which we have reluctantly described as the humane." "The sort of humanity which sways too many governors of asylums in the United States might, indeed, be inspired by a rule similar to that said to have been made for the officers of Bethlem Hospital after the

removal to Moorfields in 1675,—'No keeper or servant shall beat or ill-treat a lunatic without he considers it absolutely necessary for the better governing of the lunatic.'"

Statements of this sort did not, naturally, pass unchallenged; and investigation seems to have disclosed the fact that there were more converts among American superintendents to the practice of non-restraint than to its theory. They were, indeed, as some one remarks, somewhat in the position of the young man in the New Testament who objected, and then went and did as he was bidden. Dr. Hack Tuke, writing in 1876, after a visit to the asylums of this country, condemns the unqualified nature of this attack, maintaining that "the sins of some asylum authorities, and those as a rule municipal rather than medical, should not be visited indiscriminately upon the whole body of medical superintendents of hospitals for the insane."

It is a little difficult to draw any general conclusion in a matter which depended so entirely upon the personal attitude of the individual superintendent. Where the pressure of public sentiment did not hold the asylum service up to a definite standard, the man made the asylum; and it has happened that a single State has shown the anomaly of one hospital of the very highest type in this as in all other respects, while the superintendent of a second exhibited a crib-bed as one of the asylum's choicest possessions! However, while it is difficult to ascertain just the amount of mechanical restraint in use twenty years ago, there was undoubtedly, except in the most advanced institutions, a use of it which we should now consider excessive. This, with the experience then obtained, was regarded as unavoidable. It required a long course of experimentation to determine the extent to which mechanical restraint could be dispensed with. The present attitude of American alienists is expressed by Dr. Andrews, who says: "While the non-restraint system has not become a universally declared doctrine, there is but a minimum amount of restraint employed, and that under the personal supervision of a medical officer. There are some American superintendents who have openly avowed their adherence to the absolute non-restraint system, and many who virtually practise it without being willing to proclaim themselves its advocates. The position of the profession in America, as I interpret it, is that the employment of some form of mechanical restraint in certain cases is legitimate;

and its members are unwilling to deprive themselves of its advantages, if, in their deliberate judgment, it is necessary or preferable to other methods of treatment in the individual case. While it is not ruled out, by the tyranny of public or official opinion which may overcome the judgment of the physician who is responsible for the proper care of the patient, it is only prescribed like any other medical or moral treatment."

In the innovation of open wards we are imitating the Scotch alienists. The first introduction of unlocked doors in Scotland was made by Dr. Batty Tuke in the Fife and Kinross District Asylum. In this asylum there are but two locked doors, and the Barony Parochial Asylum presents the curious spectacle of a retreat for the insane without a single locked door. This is an amount of liberty not given in any American asylum, although the system of some open wards is on trial in most of our institutions, and is reported as working most satisfactorily. The effect upon convalescents is excellent. The number of attempted escapes is much smaller than had been supposed would be the result. In several asylums having a number of open wards the reports show that escapes are far oftener attempted by the patients in the closed wards. From Norristown, Penn., it is reported that an increase in freedom has brought about a decrease in the number of attempted escapes. In some asylums there is used instead a system of paroling the patients upon the grounds, and even beyond them. This practice of putting the patients upon honor has worked unexpectedly well; and, when a promise has once been given by a patient, it is seldom broken, the increased liberty being highly prized and proving beneficial. Many who are determined to escape when in restraint are satisfied to remain when their liberty is given them. In all of the more progressive institutions the number of paroled patients has greatly increased in the time covered by this report. The inmates of the open wards have entire freedom to come and go upon the grounds as they choose during the day. The principle has also been demonstrated that for a large number of trustworthy patients the parole is not an unmixed good, but requires to be coupled with stated industry on the part of all patients who are physically and mentally capable of employment, as many paroled patients, if left to themselves, degenerate into loafers.

In the matter of furloughing the insane we have made some ad-

vance, but are still far from ideal conditions. There should be some simple and flexible provision in all States such as that recommended by Dr. Stephen Smith, which would permit the absence of an insane person in such manner and on such terms as, in the judgment of his custodians, will be safe and beneficial. The Scotch Lunacy Law provides for four weeks' furlough granted by superintendents, and a year's "Statutory Probation," granted by the Lunacy Board; but we have not in America any provision as generous in regard to time as this. Furloughs of thirty days are allowed in Pennsylvania, which were formerly renewed from time to time without the return of the patient to the hospital; but, as the strict interpretation of the regulation forbade this, the practice was discontinued, with the result of practically debarring the furloughing of patients and the defeating of its intent. The statutes of Alabama (1886–87) provide that the superintendent of the hospital may grant furloughs for a period not exceeding six months, and the new law of Minnesota contains a similar provision. Although not provided for by law, some form of furlough is customary in almost all of the States. Where the patients are harmless and their friends can and will take care of them, the matter is left to the initiative of the people responsible. It is customary in certain States for the superintendent permitting the furlough to put the friends of the patient under bond for his proper care and control, if necessary.

Thus much for increased liberty: now, in regard to the increase of opportunities for "the pursuit of happiness," under which head comes, first of all, opportunity for occupation.

Although Dr. Earle (Annual Report of Bloomingdale Asylum, 1845) said nearly fifty years ago: "Of all the means included under the head of moral treatment, manual labor, useful employment with the hands, justly claims pre-eminence over all the others. At a certain stage of the disorder, when medicine has exerted its influence to a degree sufficient to enable the person measurably to exercise self-control, employment comes in as one of the most powerful restorative measures. No one is compelled to work, but inducements are sometimes presented to encourage them to engage in it." And though others of the early alienists recognize in occupation one of the most effective measures for promoting the welfare of the insane, causing as it did an excited person to spend in a reasonable and proper way the excitement which might otherwise take the form of vio-

lence, withdrawing the minds of the depressed from their own musings, and tending to prevent a further narrowing of the mental sphere, yet there seems to have come a time in the history of most asylums when these valuable effects of occupation were neglected or overlooked. The idea that the insane were all alike, and should all lead the same life,—a life far withdrawn from that of the normal individual,—and receive the same treatment,—an idea which is embodied in the asylum construction of the period,—did not favor diversity of occupation. Advance has come with differentiation in the groups of the insane and segregation in their buildings, and with increase in the amount of the land attached to the hospital, permitting, where the acreage is as large as it should be, farm and garden work. The ideal of a well-ordered hospital twenty years ago involved a certain amount of deadly monotony of life, a sad disciplined idleness, which tended to the "hospitalization" of the patient. Individualization, as it is now understood, was not sought. Amusements and games, in which the patients took often but a languid interest, filled to too great an extent the place of "hygienic occupation." In looking over the asylum reports of the earlier '70's, one finds in them but little mention of occupation, and that little was undertaken tentatively. There were, of course, such exceptions as the asylum at Northampton, where under Dr. Earle the value of occupation was always strongly insisted upon. But in some places we even find that it was the policy to discourage occupation. There were among the members of the Association of Superintendents those who believed that the introduction of trades and handicrafts among the insane was a disadvantage to them, and should not be countenanced. Says the "Report" of Frederic Norton Manning, already referred to, "The work done by the patients in American asylums is, as a rule, considerably less than those of Great Britain and Germany, and in some cases less than those in France."

All this has changed. In the later '70's statistics regarding the amount of work done in asylums begin to appear in the reports of superintendents and State Boards, and from year to year the change in this direction has been a great and increasing one. We note that asylums at first reporting the occupation of "a few as they feel inclined," ultimately give occupation to from forty to fifty per cent. of their occupants. In all this it is, of course, under-

stood that work is a curative measure, and, like any other curative measure, to be carefully applied under medical supervision. The result of the patient's work, though it may legitimately be profitable, is not the prime object sought; for the real remedial effect of labor is coming to be appreciated at its full value, and the question of the employment of patients is now a very prominent one in the minds of those in charge of our asylums and hospitals. The Alabama Insane Hospital, which, under the management of Dr. Peter Bryce, rose to such a high standard of excellence, has an industrial system which is one of its distinctive characteristics. In the last report we note that some seventy-five per cent. of all classes are constantly occupied, a list of thirty-five different occupations being given, and that "almost all of the patients who are not sick, helplessly or acutely insane, are employed at least a portion of the time in useful labor, with the most gratifying result in benefit to the individual patients, as well as a material saving in cost amounting to some thousands of dollars annually to the State, each insane person who engages in the work being self-supporting. The effect of systematic occupation upon the general discipline of the house is most salutary." This last, indeed, is the universal testimony. At the Eastern Illinois Hospital at Kankakee from seventy to seventy-five per cent. of the patients are usefully employed. The list of employments here includes, in addition to the varied forms of farm work, work upon the grounds, and the usual indoor occupations for women, such occupations as broom and basket making, shoe repairing, upholstering, picture-framing, wood-turning, carpentry, mat and rug making. The erection of a workshop, in which these industries are carried on, has brought about the increase of the percentage of employment some ten per cent., and has proved profitable as well. A new building has been erected for this purpose for the use of the men, leaving the present workshop for the women's use,— a step which has led to the development of other industries. The asylum at Norristown has also made a specialty of industrial work since its beginning.

In 1890 Dr. Wetherill, secretary of the State Committee on Lunacy, made a report on labor and occupation of the insane in hospitals in Pennsylvania, in which is recommended, "from the sole standpoint of the best interests of the insane," a system of organized labor, proceeding much farther than anything that has yet been

done, contemplating the engagement of a class of qualified artisans or directors of labor who would, under the instruction of the hospital authorities, systematically instruct and direct the energy of the patients in manufactures such as do not require the application of much machinery. In this way it has been demonstrated that patients may produce all clothing worn, make hats, etc. This system, however, has not yet been carried out in Pennsylvania. As an example of what may be accomplished for the individual, Dr. Wetherill has selected a class of chronic, idle, and thoroughly hospitalized patients, and, under special instruction regularly applied, has produced in a few weeks a body of useful workers who have never since relapsed into their former listless state, and whose manifest improvement in every way was wholly due to employment.

The present percentage of the employed in the State hospitals of Pennsylvania averages thirty-nine, eleven per cent. being the least, and fifty-five the highest. The average per cent. of the employed in almshouses is less, being thirty-five per cent., and in private hospitals twenty-two per cent. It is hoped by the carrying out of some system of thoroughly organized labor that from seventy-five to eighty per cent. of the chronic insane might be usefully employed, and a fair per cent. might in time be taught to produce articles of commercial value. A subject of importance in this connection is compensation in money of the patients for their work. This has been tried in a limited way in several institutions, and small sums allowed patients or other rewards given; and the increased results and quickened interest show that a great deal can be accomplished by a suitable recognition of some proper system of rewards for industry.

Although the subject of games and amusements has always received consideration in our hospitals, they are a much more important feature in asylum life now than formerly. A veteran superintendent, being interrogated for the purposes of this report, writes: "Looking back over the period of twenty-six years, I note a decided improvement in the moral treatment of our patients. A much larger share of liberty is accorded them now than formerly, much more exercise in the open air is taken, and much more is done for their diversion in every way, particularly in affording them stated assemblies several times each week during the fall, winter, and spring, and during the summer permitting them to take trips into the country," etc. Many asylums are now provided with large

amusement halls, where are held such entertainments as dancing parties, theatrical performances, concerts, lectures, stereopticon exhibitions. The list of hospital amusements of to-day includes the use of libraries and reading-rooms, cards, billiards, and other games, both outdoor and indoor, lawn parties, picnics, etc.

Physical culture is now practised in many asylums; and the results prove it would be desirable for all, as its effects are most beneficial.

In a number of asylums schools for the patients have been established, in most cases taught by the officers, but in one or two instances by teachers employed for the purpose. They have been found to be successful in attracting the attention and interest of a certain class of patients, chiefly melancholiacs, who would not work and took no interest in amusements, and have led to a healthier mental life and ultimate recovery in many instances.

Some asylums now possess seaside or country cottages, residence in which has been found to be highly beneficial to convalescent patients. McLean Asylum has a cottage at Lynn, the Friends' Asylum one at Atlantic City. While in the main these are the adjuncts of private institutions, the New Hampshire Asylum, a State institution, has recently erected a summer cottage at Lake Pennacook. During the first summer it was opened several patients were discharged cured from it, and all experienced both benefit and pleasure.

In line with other advances tending to the comfort and happiness of the insane has been the improvement in service in half a dozen ways. One of the most marked advances in this respect has followed the establishment of training schools for attendants.

The solution of the problem of securing kind and intelligent performance of attendants' duties has been a most important and difficult one. The practice of neglect, ill-treatment, and abuse of patients by attendants, which it was impossible for superintendents to foresee and forestall, has cast odium upon more than one asylum; and yet this abuse may have arisen quite as much from ignorance as from ill-will on the part of the attendants. With the newer ideas regarding the moral treatment of the insane, it has become imperative that the attendants should be no longer keepers, but companions as well,— a post which demands not only a high degree of intelligence, patience, and tact, but a special training. With the establishment of training schools a new era may be said to have begun in asylum service. Not only is the best made of existing material, but a new and

better class of attendants is attracted to the work, and greater permanency of service is also secured.

The first training school established in this country was at McLean Asylum; the next, at the State asylum at Buffalo, N.Y. Before 1882 general hospital methods, including class instruction and teaching in ward and bedside duties, had been introduced at McLean. The preparatory work or organization and development of methods went on gradually during 1883 and 1884, the first class being graduated in 1886, in which year the first class from the Buffalo Asylum school, organized a little later, was also graduated. In 1886 the training school at Kankakee was started, and has since been regularly maintained. The training schools were later organized at the Hudson River Asylum, the asylum at Indianapolis, at Cleveland, at Independence, Ia., at the Eastern Michigan Asylum, and elsewhere. The success of these schools in attaining the object aimed at has been such that it has led to the organization of others; and at present in many, if not in most asylums, instruction is given, though often in a more informal manner, in the duties of attendants. The classes are conducted by the officers of the hospital. There is usually a two years' course, consisting of lectures and clinical instruction. Diplomas are given in some schools. The attendants are taught how and what to observe, how to meet emergencies, the best methods for caring for and managing the different classes of the insane, with enough of the nature of insanity to give them an adequate comprehension of their work.

One of the happiest results of the training school is the sympathy it promotes between physicians and attendants, giving the latter an interest in and comprehension of the ideals of the former, and making possible a hearty co-operation between them. No physician can carry out his best plans for his patients with unsympathetic or uncomprehending attendants.

The training varies somewhat in the different schools. Thus at McLean the pupils at the school are fitted to undertake general nursing as well, while in some of the other schools greater stress is laid upon the feature of "mental nursing," it being felt that in adopting many features of general hospital training some things were provided not needed in the asylum; while, on the other hand, a kind of training quite uncalled for in hospital service became of prime importance in attendants upon the insane. In the Buffalo and McLean

Asylums the male attendants were not, at first, members of the training classes; but at Buffalo all the attendants are now required to attend the school, and at McLean they nearly all do so. The school at Kankakee was begun upon the basis of giving all attendants of both sexes such measure of teaching and kind of training as could be applied to the entire body of those employed. All schools report a steady improvement in the quality of asylum service.

In the State of New York the medical officers and all employees of the State hospitals, outside of the ordinary vagrant class, are on the civil service list, and are subject to examination under the laws of the service. This tends to give stability and efficiency to the hospital service, and it would be well if the example of New York were followed by all the other States. It is of the highest importance that institutions of public benevolence should not be, as under the present system they too often are, used for party services, regardless of the welfare of their inmates.

Another change in the internal administration of asylums has been the employment of women physicians, either fully in charge of the female department, in charge of female wards under the superintendent, or as assistants. In some hospitals, also, women physicians living outside the walls are engaged as consulting physicians. Twenty years ago this would have been an impossibility, as there were not educated and competent women to fill such places. The propriety and suitability of a woman physician upon a hospital staff is obvious, and needs no defence. If the results in the way of cures attained have not been all that were at first expected, this fact does not go to disprove the need of women physicians, but rather to show that the influence of pelvic disease in causing the insanity of women was probably overestimated.

One factor that has had to do with the improvement of asylum service is the increased compensation paid to attendants, wages being in some instances nearly double the sum paid twenty years ago, with corresponding improvement in the quality of service rendered.

Among the minor changes which have been found to have a humanizing influence upon the insane may be mentioned the substitution of the congregate for ward dining-rooms. The change has given satisfaction wherever it has been tried. It has been found that getting the patients out of the wards three times a day and

marching them to the refectory tends to produce a decided improvement in their habits and self-control. There are also further considerations of economy in the waste of fuel, a better condition of the food when it is placed upon the table, and the increased facilities for a thorough inspection and supervision as to its quantity, quality, and the manner of serving. While, however, the congregate dining-rooms are admirable for a large number of the chronic and harmless insane, they are not beneficial for the convalescents or highly intelligent class, unless provision is made to separate them from the demented and disorderly though harmless patients, so many of whom are capable of enjoying the general dining-room.

The introduction of night service on the wards is another of the important minor changes wrought in the last few years. Until recently one general night watch upon each side of the house was considered all that was really demanded in the ordinary asylum. The introduction of night watches upon the disturbed wards, hospital wards, and those occupied by the filthy and demented patients, has simply changed the character of the respective wards.

The abolition of airing courts in many asylums is another step which has tended not only to greater comfort and happiness of patients, but has also subserved the purposes of better discipline.

Additions have been made to the therapeutic resources for the treatment of the insane: the food preparations, maltine, pepsin, etc., have been found valuable. Sulfonal, chloralamid, and other hypnotics of recent discovery have been added. Massage and Swedish movements have been brought into use, while such advances have been made in balneology and electrical therapeutics as to make them practically new sciences. The development of interest in pathological work in connection with insanity has been great in the period covered by this report. Special pathologists have been appointed in connection with many hospitals, and much good work is being done, which, however, is practically buried in the yearly reports of the asylums. As a science, pathological work in the laboratory in connection with asylums, where it exists, is still in its infancy. Its great discoveries are before, and not behind it: its beneficent results are still things hoped for. The field is a tempting one, but before the apparatus and men can be provided to equip fully institutions for the insane for such work there must be a process of education of the public and the legislators who control the funds necessary for such purposes.

Classification, Buildings, etc.

Many of the minor improvements in the care of the insane have been brought about by one most fundamental advance, that, namely, in our ideas of the classification of insanity.

Twenty years ago the idea still obtained that the insane were all alike, that they all needed the same kind of surroundings and treatment: insanity was supposed to work such an alteration in human nature that the matters of environment and association — such potent factors in the normal life — were no longer to be taken into consideration. Many asylums were erected on this principle, admirable in their way, quite perfect for the reception of the disturbed insane, but quite inelastic, and unfitted for such selection and separation of the different classes of the insane, such individualization, as our modern ideas demand.

It is hardly possible, of course, even in the best arranged asylum, to carry out any scheme of classification as thoroughly as is desirable. The two fundamental principles which most of those now having the care of the insane wish to be able to recognize are the preservation, as far as possible, of surroundings and a way of life that shall seem homelike and natural to the patient, and the placing together of cases which shall work no injury to one another mentally. This last involves the separation of the epileptics, dements, uncleanly, the violent suicidal and homicidal, the criminal insane, and the subdivision of the mild and inoffensive into groups of cases that may associate together without prejudice or disadvantage. Much has already been done in this direction in American asylums: much remains to be done. No basis of classification, in so far as it affects the individual patient, is likely to be permanent. In many instances, whatever the basis of classification, it will not hold good throughout the twenty-four hours, the matter is so purely practical.

In this connection may be considered the change in ideas of asylum construction which has taken place along the line mentioned in twenty years. As has just been indicated, the type of that period was the linear, congregate building, intended to accommodate two hundred or two hundred and fifty patients. Frederic Norton Manning describes the American building of those days as follows: "They consisted of a central corridor, with small rooms opening from it along each side, serving as sleeping-rooms for the inmates. Each

floor was thus a complete asylum; and a number of such floors placed end to end, and story above story, either in a linear, H, or square form, constituted the asylum, which was always under one continuous roof. In England the asylums so constructed were found dark and gloomy, while the ventilation was imperfect. The modifications introduced by American architects have served to overcome these difficulties. Instead of appropriating all the rooms leading from the corridor to sleeping accommodations, some of large size have been made into cheerful dining and day rooms which command views of the surrounding country. By means of end windows and occasionally doing away with the dividing wall between room and corridor, and so making the former, lighted by a large window, a recess from the latter, the corridors have been made fairly light; and by the employment of an elaborate and artificial system of ventilation the whole buildings are, as a rule, well ventilated and healthy. But even with all the improvements the corridors, as places of promenade, are less cheerful than the corridors with rooms on one side only, most frequently seen in English asylums; and the cost of the system of ventilation overbalances the diminished cost of construction." He further objects to this type of building on the ground that the sitting, reading, working, taking exercise, and eating in a corridor represents nothing in domestic life, conforms to nothing which the patients had previously known.

When the increase of the insane became so great that the existing asylums could not accommodate them, additions were made to those asylums; and new and larger ones were built along the same lines, ushering in what has been termed the "cathedral era" of asylum construction, when splendid buildings with almost palatial fittings were erected at a great expense, the cost per capita amounting to from $1,000 to $3,000, or even more. An examination of fifty-five asylums, many of them erected before the more extravagant age of building set in, showed the total cost per patient to be $1,074; while, as Dr. Wilbur pointed out in 1874, the cost of the most expensive hotels in America probably did not exceed $1,500 per capita. This great expense prevented the care of all of the insane who might have been provided for if the per capita cost had been less. Also, the great institutions were somewhat unwieldy to manage; and, further, they did not conform any more than their predecessors to the more modern and more scientific views regarding the best en-

vironment for the insane. The succeeding era of asylum construction, which was ushered in, in the face of a good deal of opposition, was that of detached wards, pavilions, or cottages; and in its different forms it has thus far proved itself both less expensive and more elastic and adaptable. It might be said that there was a demand for variation in the type of building for the insane which began to make itself felt twenty years ago, but had not reached the stage of practical experimentation. This demand was the outgrowth of a dissatisfaction with existing conditions, and of a feeling that greater adaptability to the varying needs and widely differing classes of the insane were required. The feeling was also stimulated by the descriptions, widely disseminated, of the insane settlement at Gheel, Belgium, where in the neighborhood of two thousand insane persons were provided for, being largely quartered as inmates in the houses of the peasants of the village. While nothing approaching the establishment at Gheel could be developed in a country like ours, and while the quartering of the insane in buildings that would be properly called cottages, as the term is ordinarily used, would be impracticable, yet as the result of agitation on the one hand, and experiment on the other, the style of construction of buildings for the insane has undergone a great modification. Annexes, pavilions, cottages, colonies, have been developed in connection with the older institutions; and many of the newer ones have been erected in a wholly segregated style. The buildings in some cases are connected by corridors either above or underground, in other cases wholly detached. Examples of the changed construction are the following, which were erected in the order named: the Willard Asylum, with its detached blocks scattered over a wide domain, each block being more or less complete in itself, but departing more and more as construction went on from the older, linear plan; the Norristown, Pa., Institution, consisting of a series of blocks, mostly two stories in height, connected by an underground corridor; the Illinois Eastern Hospital at Kankakee, which started with a linear building, and made additions from time to time of wholly detached wards, buildings two stories in height, and corresponding in their forms as nearly as possible to an ordinary dwelling, having to-day twenty-five such buildings, with over two thousand inmates. The Kankakee Hospital is noteworthy as being the first to break completely with the old traditions of asylum building; and its success may be said to

have first demonstrated the value of the "cottage asylum," and established it as the accepted modern type. Similar institutions are the Toledo Asylum, which has in excess of a thousand patients, likewise accommodated in wholly detached two-story buildings, without any building of the linear type of construction; the North Dakota Hospital at Jamestown; the institutions at Logansport and Richmond, Ind.; the St. Lawrence State Hospital near Ogdensburg, N.Y.; and the Central Islip Institution on Long Island, whose wards are detached and mostly one story high.

The importance of the electrical inventions of the age in diminishing the difficulty of administration of such institutions can hardly be overestimated. The sole invention of the telephone is of incalculable value in the supervision of a cottage hospital. This instrument, and such others as the electrical watchman's clock, the electric fire-alarm, and the system of electric lighting (reducing danger from fire) admit of the administration of an institution on the detached ward plan on the principles by which a town or village is governed; and experience at Kankakee, Toledo, and elsewhere has shown that such institutions are practical, economical, and capable of efficient administration. As against a few hundred insane sheltered in this manner twelve years ago, there are now probably more than six thousand so cared for.

Allied to the cottage system, being indeed a modification of it, is the "colony" system, of which the asylum at Kalamazoo, Mich., is an example. The colony system proposes first the hospital, a central building for acute cases, with medical superintendence and all modern hospital appliances; then the purchase of tracts of land of different sizes, amounting to six hundred or a thousand acres in all, within one to three miles of the hospital. On these tracts are to be erected detached buildings for such classes of patients as may be able to live with advantage outside of the hospital. The cottages, containing thirty to fifty patients, are under the charge of a man and his wife, who are practically the housekeepers and heads of the family. The adjoining tracts of land are to be devoted to especial branches of agriculture, which are planned to furnish occupation and lessen the cost of maintenance. This system is planned to combine the advantages of the cottage asylums with the best features of the Wisconsin system; *i.e.*, the farm life and occupation. While a practical separation of the so-called chronic and curable

cases is obtained and the labor of those who are able to work is utilized in the best way for their own support and to lessen the burden of the State, there is obviated that complete separation of apparently chronic cases to which objection has been taken on the ground that it is difficult to say with assurance of any case of insanity, except those in which secondary dementia has supervened and those showing positive symptoms of organic degeneration, that it is incurable, and that all cases should be under medical supervision, that advantage may be taken of anything promising a favorable turn in the disease. Under this system, if a patient does not prove adapted to cottage life, or if at any time it is shown that the case is one which would be better for having hospital care again, the transfer is quick, easy, and inexpensive. In an institution of this sort could perhaps be carried out more easily than elsewhere the modern hospital ideas in regard to the insane. Here it would be possible to carry out advantageously such a system as that planned for the Fife and Kinross Asylum in Scotland by Dr. Turnbull, where all patients are to be admitted first to the hospital, remaining under observation there in every case until such case is thoroughly understood, and remaining there as long as treatment promises to be beneficial in those cases where it is indicated. After leaving the hospital, the patients are assigned to different wards in the asylum.

The chief difficulty of the colony system as at present practised is that incident upon proper sanitation. Such arrangements for sewerage, drainage, heating, lighting, and fire protection — the latter of the very highest importance — as are possible in the ordinary cottage hospital are of course out of the question at a moderate expense where the buildings are separated two or three miles; and at the same time the arrangements which are sanitary for a small family of sane persons are insufficient for a household of forty to sixty such as the plan contemplates. The solution may lie in the separation of the buildings of an asylum on the segregate plan within a domain so wide that there will be no injurious contact of the insane, and yet sufficiently contracted to render it possible to avoid the difficulties indicated.

Whatever final form the hospital for the insane may take in America, the present tendency is certainly toward some flexible, segregate system, of which the hospital is the true centre.

The growth of the spirit of classification has sifted out two

classes of the insane as unsuited to mingle on any footing with the ordinary insane; namely, the epileptic and criminal insane. But, while the desirability and necessity of their separation are freely admitted, the process of accomplishing it is, as usual, prolonged.

As long ago as 1855 the State of New York erected, adjoining the grounds of the State Prison at Auburn, an asylum for insane convicts. In 1869 the scope of the institution was enlarged to make provision for the unconvicted insane sent from courts, and its name was changed to the State Asylum for Insane Criminals. Later, provision was made for the admission of patients from all the penal institutions in the State. The asylum having become crowded and the location being unsatisfactory, as it did not afford the opportunity for exercise, labor, and occupation conceded to be necessary in asylum erection, a new building was erected at Matteawan, which was ready for occupancy at the close of 1891. The example of New York in providing separately for the criminal insane has been followed by Michigan in the establishment of the asylum for insane criminals at Ionia. Massachusetts has provided separately since 1889 for the criminal insane in wards at the State Farm at Bridgewater. Illinois has erected an asylum for the criminal insane on the grounds of the Southern Penitentiary, at Chester.

The matter of separate provision for this class is now being agitated in other States, as it is clearly recognized that it is an injustice to both classes to endeavor to care for the criminal and non-criminal insane together. The non-criminal should not be forced to an association with criminals that is at once distasteful, degrading, and dangerous; while it is also unjust to the criminal insane that they should be so restricted and deprived of an admissible amount of personal freedom as is necessary to secure the comfort of the non-criminal class when they are cared for in the same institution.

The necessity of separate provision for the epileptic has been slowly recognized, but the idea is gradually gaining ground. Its spread in this country is the result of the labors of Dr. Frederick Peterson, of New York, who, while Assistant Physician at the Hudson River Hospital, became impressed with the necessity for some such provision, both for the sake of the epileptic and the insane, the enforced association being detrimental to both. After a visit to the epileptic colony at Bielefeld, Germany, Dr. Peterson commenced a propaganda in this country for the establishment of similar colonies here.

The first separate State hospital for epileptics established in America is that at Gallipolis, Ohio. Its corner-stone was laid Nov. 12, 1891. It is an institution on the pavilion plan, on a farm site, in which as many of the features of the Bielefeld colony as possible have been copied.

In Massachusetts there is one small institution for the care of epileptics. In California the trustees of the Home for the Care and Training of Feeble-minded Children at Santa Clara have erected the first of a series of separate pavilions for epileptics. A bill providing for an epileptic colony in New York was vetoed this winter.

The results which have been recorded in this paper could only have been brought about under an enlightened change in public sentiment, and have been most loyally furthered by the work of the various charitable and philanthropic organizations. The State Boards, Lunacy Commissions, Association of Superintendents, all, while at times accused of over-conservatism and at others of over-daring, have worked toward the light as it was seen by them. We hope the advances signalled are but the presages of the advances yet to be. I am far from claiming that all has been done which humanity demands, but I trust I have shown how fairly we are started on the road.

XI.

Conference Sermon.

THE PERFECT LAW OF CHARITY.

BY WASHINGTON GLADDEN.

"Bear ye one another's burdens, and so fulfil the law of Christ. . . . For every man shall bear his own burden."—GAL. vi. 2, 5.

These maxims are found in the same paragraph not one inch apart. The brief counsels which come between them seem to bear partly toward the one and partly toward the other. Following the injunction to bear one another's burdens is this comment, "For if a man thinketh himself to be something when he is nothing, he deceiveth himself." The implication is that no man is strong enough to stand alone; that we are all in need of consideration and support; that times will come when the stoutest of us will feel that he must have the sympathy of his fellows. And then the apostle goes on, "But let each man prove his own work, and then shall he have his glorying in regard of himself alone, and not of his neighbor." The irony is palpable. If you look carefully into your own life, you may find so much there to be proud of that you will have no disposition to compare yourself with your neighbor. And then follows the other maxim, "For every man shall bear his own burden."

In terms we have here an exact contradiction. If each man is to bear his own burden, it is not possible for one to share the burden of another. Such contradictions abound upon the pages of the New Testament, and they have been the constant snare of the logic-mongering dogmatists. Yet we find in these antitheses, when we begin to grasp their import, one of the most luminous of all the laws of thought.

"The religious idea which Jesus had to reveal," says Dr. Edward Caird, "was so complex that it could not be expressed in language

generally intelligible except by the method of first emphasizing one side and then another, and leaving the mind of the hearer, aided by the living personality of the teacher, to make the necessary synthesis. Nay, we may say that the essential aim which bound the whole doctrine together — the aim of revealing a reconciling principle which could overcome the deepest antagonisms of life — necessitated a manner of speech in which the contradiction was brought to the front, and thrown as a spiritual problem into the soul of the learner. Hence we have a multitude of antitheses, sometimes drawn out into parables, sometimes compressed into axioms of spiritual life, each of which, to a superficial view, seems to contain rather a problem than the solution of it; for they bring opposite ideas into such close combination that we are again and again tempted to cast away one-half of the lesson in order to save the other. . . . To such questions no single answer can be given, except by an undue emphasizing of one set of utterances and an undue neglect of others. Nay, to give such an answer, we should often need to tear a question in two, and to reject one-half of it. In regard to every one of them we are forced to say that what the question itself expresses as a law of alternatives is really a vital opposition of thought, which Jesus seems to have acknowledged and even developed to its utmost intensity, but yet which it was his aim and purpose to transcend."

It is precisely this kind of antithesis which the apostle, following his Master, has here so unfalteringly stated. We must bear one another's burdens, that is one of the fundamental Christian principles: each one must bear his own burden, that is another equally fundamental. Individual responsibility, — you cannot affirm it too strongly. The identification of every man's life with the life of his fellows, — it is impossible that you should make that too emphatic. Solitariness is the very soul of character: every one of us must give account for himself to God. Sympathy is the very heart of virtue,— no man liveth to himself. Here are the two great truths confronting each other on the page of this Epistle. Paul states one of them with the most distinct emphasis, and a minute later he states the other with equal clearness. The contradiction does not seem to disturb him, he does not appear to be aware of any contradiction. Both statements are true, and he utters them and leaves them to find room for themselves in the minds of those who hear them.

I think that Paul's method, which, as we have seen, is the method

of his Master, is profoundly philosophical. Truths often stand over against each other in this kind of vital opposition, and you can only state them and leave them: neither can be denied, neither can be suppressed, neither can be subordinated. "But must there not be a higher unity in which they are comprehended and reconciled?" you ask. Yes, doubtless; but the unity consists in opposition. The two sides of an arch form a perfect unity, each opposes the other, and by its opposition supports the other. Take away either, and the other would instantly fall. There are many truths which are opposed to each other in exactly the same way. And yet you shall find plenty of severely logical people who insist on denying one or the other of them, and who thus succeed in overthrowing both. Bear ye one another's burdens, that is one half the arch: each man shall bear his own burden, that is the other half. Let them both stand. You get the whole law of burden-bearing only when you include them both. Neither must be removed, neither must be weakened: the sides of an arch must be of equal weight and equal strength.

Christianity has greatly developed and strengthened both these principles. The enlargement and depth which it has given to human sympathy is its most striking achievement. It is difficult for us to put ourselves in the places of the men who lived in the most cultured communities of the earth in the first century of the Christian era, and to see the world with their eyes. If one could only be put back into the life of that day,— could spend a few months in the best society of Rome or Corinth or Antioch or Alexandria, walking in the streets, talking and listening in the market-places, attending the public spectacles, mingling with the throngs of helots or plebeians, sharing the life of the people in the homes of the rich and of the poor,— one would find, I doubt not, much to admire in the vigor, the courage, the patriotism, the literary skill, the artistic culture, of the best of the people with whom he came in contact; but he would come back to this nineteenth century with something of the sense of relief that he would experience in escaping from a room whose air is dense with poisonous vapors into the open air. The social sentiments which constitute the atmosphere of our life would be so utterly absent from the thought and the speech of the people of that time, and their common ideas and feelings would be so unlike those that are native to us, that any sensitive nature would experience a feeling

of moral suffocation. One must be careful not to do injustice to the generous side of the Hellenic or the Roman civilization; and yet the title of Dr. Uhlhorn's first chapter in his History of Christian Charity, "A World without Love," is a fairly true description of that ancient society. There were beggars in Rome,—no lack of beggars in those days as in these,—and there was no lack of alms for beggars; but with the alms went no pity. Seneca often comes near to the Christian way of thinking, nearer, perhaps, than any great teacher of that old time; and yet, as we read his magnanimous counsels, we are often painfully impressed with the absence of social sentiments which to us seem rudimentary. "Pity," he says, "is the fault of a weak spirit which succumbs at the sight of a stranger in distress. Old women are pitiful, but the wise man is not. He helps the weeping one, but does not weep with him; he gives the poor man a gift, and extends a helping hand to the shipwrecked and dying, but does all this with a quiet, unmoved spirit, not from compassion, but from sound judgment." How far is this from the Christly habit,—to rejoice with them that rejoice, and to weep with them that weep! And through all these lofty reflections of Seneca's how steadily the thought reverts to the revenues of the bountiful soul! We ought to be generous of course; but it were wise, he tells us, to be prudent in our selection of the objects of our generosity. "I would choose out," he says, "a simple, blameless man, one who would be grateful and mindful of the benefit. For it belongs to beneficence to give willingly to any one whom I esteem worthy, and to reap joy as the reward of my good deed." Giving to an ungrateful person is the sheerest improvidence: if the return of gratitude is wanting, the gift is wasted. And yet he seems to find a little deeper reason for benevolence when he says, "If you ask me what I receive in return for my benefactions, I reply, A good conscience." The Christian motive, which steadily considers the need of the recipient and finds the blessedness of charity not in being ministered unto, but in ministering, is altogether foreign to all this high philosophy. The thing that is lacking is the power of identifying yourself with those on whom your gifts are bestowed. There was plenty of small coin in the pockets of these Romans to fling about as doles, but it was

> "Almsgiving through a gate that is
> Not open enough for two mouths to kiss."

There were distributions of corn and imperial largesses, donations of the most princely sort were bestowed by wealthy men upon the state or the municipality,— indeed, we may allow that what may rightly be called liberality was a leading trait of the Romans of the first century; but the enthusiasm of humanity was not there: the princely benefactions looked more to the renown of the giver or to the glorification of the city than to the relief of human suffering; and the beneficiaries were utterly shut out of the sympathy of those by whose bounty they were supported.

Quintilian was born while Christ was on the earth, and it is said of him that "to comprehensive sympathy and clear intellectual vision" he "added refined tenderness and freedom from self-assertion," and that, "taking him all in all, . . . his personality must have been the most attractive of his time"; and Quintilian, in one of his orations, says, "Canst thou by any means condescend so far as that the poor shall not appear to thee loathsome?"

Imagine Seneca and Quintilian and Pliny and Horace sitting down for a conference on social questions with Tennyson and Dickens and Lowell and Whittier; conceive of this select group of ancients and moderns freely comparing notes about slavery, about the proper treatment of laborers, about the poor of the cities, about the defective and dependent classes: do you not think that the exchange of views would be extremely suggestive to a philosophic listener? And the point at which the ancients and the moderns would find themselves farthest apart would be at this conception of the brotherhood of man. If those old Romans could hear Lowell read his "Vision of Sir Launfal," or chant his song about the reading of the poems of Burns in a railway car, with such strains as this: —

"And thus, amid the untaught poor,
Great deeds and feelings find a home,
That cast in shadow all the golden lore
Of classic Greece and Rome.

"O mighty brother-soul of man,
Where'er thou art, in low or high,
Thy skyey arches with exulting span
O'er-roof infinity!

. . . . . .

"It may be glorious to write
Thoughts that shall glad the two or three
High souls, like those far stars that come in sight
Once in a century;

"But better far it is to speak
One simple word, which now and then
Shall waken their free nature in the weak
And friendless sons of men;

"To write some earnest verse or line,
Which, seeking not the praise of art,
Shall make a clearer faith and manhood shine
In the untutored heart";—

or if they could have heard the Quaker poet of Amesbury recite his own "Songs of Labor" or repeat his apostrophe to Democracy:—

"Beneath thy broad, impartial eye,
How fade the lines of caste and birth!
How equal in their suffering lie
The groaning multitudes of earth!

"Still to a stricken brother true,
Whatever clime hath nurtured him;
As stooped to heal the wounded Jew
The worshipper of Gerizim.

"By misery unrepelled, unawed
By pomp or power, thou seest a Man
In prince or peasant, slave or lord,
Pale priest or swarthy artisan.

"Through all disguise, form, place, or name,
Beneath the flaunting robes of sin,
Through poverty and squalid shame,
Thou lookest on the man within.

"On man, as man, retaining yet,
Howe'er debased, and soiled, and dim,
The crown upon his forehead set,
The immortal gift of God to him";—

if those high-souled poets and orators of the Eternal City could have listened to words like these, I do not think that they would have quite known what to make of them. The moral commonplaces of our time would have been meaningless to them.

"The thought of humanity," says Dr. Storrs, "as a vital organism, each part related to every other, and all capable of being pervaded by one supreme spirit,— this was not a thought of the highest philosophy, or of the subtlest and most delicate song." This is the conception of human society which Christianity has made so familiar to us that it is almost impossible for us to think in any other terms. That we are members one of another; that the strong cannot say to the weak, nor the rich to the poor, I have no need of you; that we are all indissolubly bound together in interest, in obligation, in joy and in sorrow; that the law of Christ, which bids us bear one another's burdens, is the only law by which human society can reach permanence and perfection,— all this, as the generations pass, is becoming increasingly plain.

And if Christianity has cleared and emphasized this law of social interdependence, not less powerfully has it wrought to establish the primal law of moral independence. It has shown us that we cannot live in peaceable society without bearing one another's burdens; it has also shown us that there can be no vital and prosperous social life except as each man is trained to bear his own burdens. Christianity has taught us sympathy: not less cogently has it taught us self-help. Under no other training has the value of the individual been so magnified. The very first message of the gospel is that man is the child of God; that every man is created in the image of God; that every man must give account for himself unto God. The problem of character, the problem of destiny, is utterly personal. To each man come the mandate, the warning, the gift, the promise, the invitation; and the solemn message is, "If thou be wise, thou shalt be wise for thyself; but, if thou scornest, thou alone shalt bear it." No other religion has thus addressed the human soul. "We see here," says Dr. Channing, "a broad line between Christianity and other systems, and a striking proof of its originality and elevation. Other systems were framed for communities. Christianity approached men as individuals. It proposed not the glory of the State, but the perfection of the individual mind." I do not find these words entirely true. They are right in what they affirm: they are only wrong in what they deny. Christianity *is* framed for communities. It has a law for society and for the State. In this respect it differs from the other systems only in more perfectly accomplishing what they attempted. But it does differ from them

in this, that it emphasizes the value of the individual as none of them have ever done.

Man is free; man is responsible; for every man Christ tasted death; to every man is the offer of salvation; before every man are set life and death, blessing and cursing; the soul, the character of every man, is of infinite worth,— these are the doctrines which have given such a mighty meaning to human personality. Truly, it is an indubitable fact that the societies which have been most thoroughly Christianized are those in which the value of the individual has been most clearly recognized. And the value of the individual has been developed and enhanced by putting upon him the responsibilities of existence. Hosea Biglow testifies that

> "That's the American idee,
> To make a man a man, and let him be."

It is the American idea, no doubt, yet, like most of the fundamental American ideas, it was found in the New Testament. Stand on your own feet, shoulder your own responsibilities, bear your own burdens, work out your own salvation,— this is the ever-repeated summons of the gospel of Christ to all, to every one of the sons of men.

So, then, we find that Christianity has wrought mightily in the development and invigoration of the two principles with which we are dealing,— the principle of social interdependence and the principle of moral independence. These principles, as I have said, stand over against each other in distinct and unflinching opposition; and, the stronger they are, the more positive is their opposition.

Nevertheless, it would not be difficult to show that neither of them could have gained the strength which to-day it possesses if it had not been for the other. The social interdependence, which is such a beautiful and commanding feature of modern life, could only exist in a society wherein moral independence had been highly valued and strongly developed. The social unity that we prize is the reciprocity of sound natures and strenuous wills. The many who unite to form the one are not mice, but men. A republic of pygmies would not be a great power, even though its census figured up a thousand millions. It is a great thing to get men to work together, provided they have severally some power to work. If individually they are helpless, a thousand are a thousand times more help-

less than one. You do not lessen imbecilities by multiplying and combining them. It is only when the individuals of which society is composed are free, strong, self-reliant, healthily developed on all sides, that a coherent and fruitful social order is possible. "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself," is the law. But, in order that this love for my neighbor may be wise and helpful, I must have a true and high conception of what manner of man my neighbor ought to be, I must clearly discern the great possibilities of manhood, I must know the dignity and value of human character. That I cannot know unless I have experienced it. I must be myself the kind of man that my neighbor ought to become, else my love for him is likely to do him more harm than good. In order that my sympathy may be healthful and invigorating, my self-respect must be stanch and sound. If I do not highly value my own manhood, I cannot greatly help my fellow-man. Thus it is that there can be no wholesome altruism that does not spring from a sturdy moral independence. The only man whose strength is really serviceable in bearing his neighbor's burdens is the man who has learned to bear his own responsibilities. Thus it is that the law of sympathy which Christianity has so strongly developed rests upon and is supported by the law of self-help which it has so vigorously asserted. "That which seems to me to have happened as to society," says President Seth Low, "may be illustrated by a reference to the discovery of printing. Only when the type had been individualized, only when each type came to represent a single letter, was the era of combination reached. So now, as I conceive, we have reached in human society and in this country, in its highest form, the era of combination. That this depends largely upon the individualizing of the man appears from the fact that, when the individual is freest politically, then the organization . . . is most complete."

But, if social interdependence rests upon and is supported by the independence of the individual, not less true is it that the perfection of the individual is an outgrowth of social interdependence. The action of these principles is perfectly reciprocal. Each of them is the cause of the other, each also is the effect of the other. Never could you have found such sturdy growths of character, except in communities where the law of combination, the law of mutual help, the law of brotherly kindness, was recognized as the royal law. That law is indeed but the re-enactment of a primary human impulse; for

man is a social animal as truly as he is a political animal, and he co-operates as instinctively as do daisies and bees and buffaloes. But the time comes when this social co-operation is not instinctive, but rational,— when men voluntarily and joyfully choose to bear one another's burdens, and so fulfil the law of Christ,— and it is when this spirit begins to rule among them that the conditions exist out of which the highest and divinest character naturally springs. When this purpose of philanthropy becomes conscious in the life of a generation, when men begin to find that it is indeed more blessed to give than to receive, then what streams of gracious influence begin to flow, what helpful and inspiring suggestions are borne into the thoughts of men on every breath! The cradle songs, the lessons of the school-room, the customs of good neighborhood, the common sentiments of social intercourse, the ideals of literature and art, all bring nutriment and invigoration to the human soul, lifting up its conceptions, stimulating its aspirations, enlarging its horizons, until the type of manhood is wonderfully exalted. It is under the regimen of this highly organized and divinely co-ordinated society, where "the whole body is fitly framed and knit together according to that which every joint supplieth, according to the working in due measure of each several part," that the individual comes "unto a full-grown man, unto the measure of the stature of the fulness of Christ."

I hope that this discussion may have enabled us to apprehend the relation of the two great principles which lie at the foundation of all our charitable work. We have seen that they stand over against each other in vital opposition; and yet we have found that this opposition is like that of the two sides of an arch, each of which supports the other, neither of which can be removed without overthrowing the other. We have seen that Christianity has wonderfully strengthened both these principles, making human beings at once more independent and more interdependent, more self-reliant and more sympathetic, more individual and more social. The practical bearings of this discussion are by this time obvious enough. Most of us are engaged in work of one kind or another for the benefit of the defective, dependent, and criminal classes. It is manifest that the two principles which we have been considering must be firmly held together in all this work.

The power to identify ourselves with these unfortunate people, with the humblest and the meanest of them; to recognize the bonds

of human brotherhood that bind us to them; to take their burdens of want, of infirmity, of evil inheritance, of moral weakness upon our own feeling,—this is surely one of the primal qualifications for successful work among them. I know that something can be done for them by improving the outward conditions of their lives, by giving them better homes to live in, better sanitary surroundings, a better organization of industry, a better education in childhood and youth. All these things are of great moment; yet the main thing, after all, is the power to communicate life to these fainting souls. If they only knew their own deepest need, they could find no truer voice for it than the poet's passionate outcry: —

> "'Tis life whereof our nerves are scant,
> Life, and not death, for which we pant,
> More life and fuller that we want."

The vital thrill that shall clear the film from the dull vision, that shall enkindle hope and awaken courage and summon the flagging energies for new endeavors,—this is to most of them the one thing needful. And this quickening life can only reach them through the pulsations of a heart beating very close to theirs, through the revelation to them of a genuine human sympathy. Life can only come from life: abiogenesis is a term that represents no fact. "I am come that ye might have life," said the Master, "and that ye might have it abundantly." Yes, he came to bring it: he could not send it. Men being what they are, the only fire that awakens vital warmth in their hearts is the flame of sacred love; and this can be communicated only by contact, by the living presence of one who bears our griefs and carries our sorrows, who is ready to be wounded for our transgressions and bruised for our iniquities.

I am sure that this truth is becoming increasingly plain to all who seek to minister to the multitude of the unfortunate. The poor of our cities, so many of whom appear to find the descent to the bottomless pit of pauperism increasingly easy,— what is it that they need? Surely, one thing that they need is human friendship, human sympathy. Some of them, perhaps, are so far gone down that steep incline that attempts to rescue them are well-nigh hopeless; but there is always a large number on the brink of pauperism, and what most of them need is friendship, inspiration, the light of a kindly eye, the touch of a friendly hand. What they do not need, what

they ought by every possible means to be saved from, is the benumbing touch of official relief. Such encouragement and counsel as one friend can give another, such temporary aid as will enable them to regain their footing and hearten them for the inevitable struggle, is the right tonic for their present infirmities. More and more clear it seems to me that the salvation of those who are salvable out of these sinking masses depends on the communication to them of life through the mediation of love. You may doubt whether there is love enough in the world to save the lost, but that kind of scepticism no Christian ought to tolerate. And it appears to me that the recent movements of thought among charitable workers have all been in this direction. "Not alms, but a friend," is the motto of the new charity; and the college settlements in the neglected districts are all founded on the same principle.

"I seek not yours, but you," said the great apostle to the Corinthians. "I want you more than your money"; and this is what the needy of all our cities are saying to the prosperous and the strong. It is this call which the young men and women of the colleges and universities have heard, and to which they are so nobly responding. If there is one clear sign of promise above the horizon at this time, it is the presence of this spirit in the hearts of so many of the educated young men and women of the land.

I have had some unusual opportunities recently of feeling the pulse of a number of our higher institutions; and the signs which I have found in them of the growth of a genuine enthusiasm of humanity are very cheering. These university settlements in the cities are the outgrowth of this feeling. I do not believe that the noisy world has any just conception of the significance of this movement. These little groups of helpers are few and obscure. They hold no conventions, they take no pains to get their names into the newspapers, they blow no trumpets before them in the streets; but they go down into the desolate places of the cities and take up their abode. It does not appear that they have any very great enterprise upon their minds. They have just gone down there to live: that is all. They are going to make a comfortable and pleasant home there, and they are going to get acquainted with their neighbors. They are not there to dispense alms,— nothing of that kind. Alms! why, that would signify a kind of distinction which they are careful never to imply. They want to be neighborly, of course; to give and take;

to learn as well as to teach. If there is sickness in one of the neighbors' houses, they will be there to help, if they can; and you will see these delicately trained young women scrubbing the neglected floor, tending the sick mother's baby, watching all night by the fever patient, serving these poor neighbors of theirs as though they were their own kindred. If a man is out of work, good Samaritans of his own sex will walk miles in search of employment for him; and they constantly seek to extend their acquaintance among those who have work to give, that they may bring supply and demand together. If the boys or the girls of the neighborhood like to come into their parlors for a pleasant evening with pictures or music, that seems to gratify them. If the young fellows with whom they get acquainted in the neighborhood wish to form a debating society, they are happy to lend them aid in that. But all the while they carefully avoid everything that looks like patronage, like condescension. Preaching they are not addicted to, and not very much to lecturing. They are just living among these people, getting to know them, finding out how life looks to them, ready to lend a hand as they have an opportunity. And you can be very sure that such a little group of cultivated men and women do not live many months in such a neighborhood without changing very considerably the social atmosphere. Better sentiments, better tempers, begin to prevail. Thrift comes back to here and there a squalid home. Hope stirs once more in pulses that had long missed its quickening throb. The wilderness and the solitary place begin to show some signs of gladness. If there are somewhere above us watchers who look down from the heavenly heights,— a great cloud of witnesses who have fought the fight and have finished their course, and now bend over us, wistful spectators of what is passing here,— I am sure that the scene on which their eyes linger longest is not the gay rout at the watering-places, nor even the thronged church with chanting choir and intoning priest, much less the zealous crowds of defenders of the faith exulting in their power to banish from their fellowship and brand with their censure some clear-sighted man who has found a truth which they in their dulness have failed to see. I can scarcely conceive it possible that, if their glance could fall on such a spectacle as this, they would not

> "Walk backward, with averted gaze,
> And hide the shame."

But the picture which would most surely draw and fasten their admiring eyes would be such as is visible among these little groups of generous youth in obscure nooks of the great cities, who have learned that culture is for service, and who have turned from the rivalries of traffic and the revelries of fashion to bear the burdens of their neediest fellow-men, and so fulfil the law of Christ.

I am not without hope that the churches, the rich and the strong churches of our cities, may presently take a hint from these collegians, and learn to seek and save the lost in a manner not less Christly. Why should not these prosperous disciples go down by colonies into those deserted districts, and make their homes there? Is this asking too much of those who are bearing the name of Christ? Will it be said that the sanitary conditions of these districts are such that these well-to-do people could not live there? The answer is that, if they go down there to live, they will see to it that the sanitary conditions are improved. Do you say that the society which your children would meet would be very undesirable? But it is quite the habit of city people to select their associates, no matter in what quarter they may live. And I have some doubt as to whether it would not be possible, even among these artisans, to find society for your children quite as improving as that whose doings are depicted in the "Anglomaniacs" and in "Sweet Bells out of Tune."

Certain I am that the one thing needful to the Christian Church of this day is that it should get possession of the truth that the gifts of life can never be *sent* to the perishing. The disciple is not greater than his Master: he must go as his Master went, and live with the people whom he wants to save. We have learned a great deal already, thank God, of the meaning of the new commandment of our Lord; but we have a great deal more to learn. And we, who seek to minister in his name to the poor and the sick and the forlorn, have great need to take his yoke upon us and learn of him.

But, in all this loving identification of ourselves with those whom we wish to serve, we must never lose sight of that other cardinal fact, that the one precious thing to be cherished and cared for and saved from loss and harm is the personal integrity of every one of them. To minister to their bodies and have no respect to their characters; to increase their comfort by diminishing their courage; to help them in such a way as to make them more helpless,—this is the very irony of charity. When your sympathy with the unfortunate

weakens their self-reliance, your sympathy is a curse rather than a blessing.

Doubtless the net result of what has gone by the name of charity for the last fifty years has been seriously vitiated by the neglect of this principle. The law of sympathy has been developed, while the law of self-help has been greatly ignored. We have put our main emphasis on the duty of bearing one another's burdens: we have forgotten or have understated the truth that every man must bear his own burden. The one thing we ought to have done, but we ought not to have left the other undone.

That each man has a burden to bear, of toil, of pain, of trouble, and that his character is formed in bearing this burden, is the fundamental fact of human life. Unhappily, in the vicissitudes of our mortal state, these burdens are of unequal heaviness. Some among us are clearly overweighted: they are in danger of being crushed beneath the load. Here is the opportunity of the strong. So much of our neighbor's burden we may carry as shall keep him from sinking to the earth. But when we assume it all, or, in the excess of our sympathy, permit him to shirk the greater part of it upon us, our kindness becomes cruelty. We take away from him the opportunity of manhood. We encourage him in sacrificing his integrity to his love of ease, his soul to his senses.

The Christian scheme of life does not contemplate the remission of tasks nor even of sufferings. Its alleviations come not by taking off the burden, but by putting strength into the bearer. Paul prayed thrice in vain for the removal of a great trial: the answer was, "My grace is sufficient for thee, for my strength is made perfect in weakness." It is doubtful whether we can improve on the divine economy. Men are made men by bearing burdens. The cares and responsibilities of life are good for all of us. The discipline of toil and conflict, of endeavor and endurance, of hope and fear, is the regimen under which all our noblest virtues are won. All this is irksome to the natural man; and, when the physical tone is lowered by hereditary degeneracy and the will is weakened by vice, human beings are sometimes far more ready to shirk these burdens of life than to bear them. The pains that some of these unfortunate people take, the ingenuity that they display in getting rid of the responsibilities of existence, in shifting their load to the shoulders of others, would be amusing if it were not so pitiful.

When the sentimental charity which has no sense of the values of character falls in with cases of this sort, the downward road from poverty to pauperism is soon made broad and smooth. It is altogether probable that the money which has been expended during the last century in charitable relief to the poor in their homes has done more harm than good from the simple failure to recognize this fundamental law, that our bearing of our neighbor's burdens must always be of such a kind that it shall not relieve him of his own burdens, but shall make him strong and willing and proud to bear them.

Have we not found in these two principles, divinely co-ordinated, opposing each other, holding each other in check, and by their mutual opposition supporting and confirming each other, the law of all wise charitable work? The law of sympathy, the law of self-help,— they are not twain, but one. What God hath joined together let not man put asunder. It is not good for either of them that it should be alone; and when, in all our work for the welfare of men, they shall be happily mated, like perfect music unto noble words, then mercy and truth shall have met together, and in the bounty of the rich there shall be no more curse, but comfort and help and blessing for the poor.

XII.

Reports from States.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON HISTORY OF REPORTS FROM STATES.

BY A. O. WRIGHT, CHAIRMAN.

Your committee received so few reports of States in time that they have been compelled to prepare this document with less regard to those reports on which it should have been based than they would have liked. A part of the States have prepared and placed in the hands of the committee reports showing the progress of the past twenty years. Other reports have been prepared too late for our use, but will be presented to the Conference. The committee have, therefore, not confined themselves to the information presented in the State reports this year, but have used the reports of previous years, and such other sources of information as were at their command. We have also been compelled to summarize more than we would have liked, and thus to omit individual mention of many changes in the several States, both from lack of space and because we did not wish to forestall the reports from States in these particulars. Our aim is to present a brief outline of progress of work for the defective classes in the last twenty years, as it has from time to time been presented to the Conference, correcting and supplementing, where necessary, from other sources of information.

Organization of our Work.

In twenty years the population of the United States has almost doubled, and its wealth has more than doubled. During the same time the numbers of the defective classes have much more than doubled, at least as recorded in the census returns. This may mean

a real increase in the ratio of the defective classes to the general population, or it may mean better facilities for caring for them, and therefore for counting them. At any rate, it means that the public is actually spending a far larger sum every year for their care than it did twenty years ago, and a larger amount in proportion to the population. The question, then, arises, Are they also cared for more rationally and more humanely? To this question a definite answer is not easy. The quantity of care can be determined with approximate exactness, because its determination admits of mathematical methods; but with regard to the quality there may well be honest differences of opinion. Still, we believe that there has been a real and noteworthy improvement in the methods of treatment, and that an impartial examination of the changes of the last twenty years will demonstrate it.

These twenty years have been marked by organization of public and private charitable and correctional work in three special directions.

First, this organization has taken the form of State Boards of various kinds. The original type of a State Board of Charities was one which had no power but that of inspection, report, and recommendation, its work being done by unpaid members and a paid secretary. This type has been modified in some States by the grant of limited executive power to the Board. In others a salaried Board of Control has been created, with complete administrative power over State institutions, as well as the right to inspect local institutions. Several States have also prison commissions. About one-half of the States have now one or the other of these forms of State organization of charities and correction, and these States include more than two-thirds of the population and wealth of the nation. Such boards are found in all the principal States of the East and the interior, and in several of the Western States. North Carolina is the only Southern State which has a State Board. The organizing effect upon all State and local charitable and correctional work of having some central authority in every State has been great. The results have been valuable in securing economy and effectiveness in the management of institutions, in creating a healthy public sentiment on questions relating to the dependent, defective, and delinquent classes, and in giving unity of direction to public and private effort for the improvement of their condition.

Second, in most of our large cities, and in many smaller towns, a voluntary organization of municipal and private charitable work has been effected under the name of Charity Organization or Associated Charities. This has brought light into many dark places, has greatly increased the effectiveness and economy of private relief, and has done much to mould local opinion as to many questions relating to these classes, but especially as to the form and measure of direct aid to the poor.

Akin to this is the volunteer inspection of charities by the State Charities Aid Associations of New York and of New Jersey, which have been made semi-official bodies, and by the local committees and officers in Ohio, Michigan, and North Carolina, appointed by a central authority, and given a semi-official character. Akin to this also is the inspecting work of the Prisoner's Aid Society in Maryland, and the work of several city societies, like the Milwaukee Ladies' Local Visiting Committee.

Third, the National Conference of Charities and Correction has organized for the whole nation the movement for the better care of these classes. The effect of our annual meetings has naturally been most felt in States and cities which already have State and city organization, but the whole nation has undoubtedly been benefited by this great combined movement for the study of the relations of society to its unsuccessful and suffering members.

Insanity.

The treatment of the insane twenty years ago was practically limited to the hospital care of what were considered as curable cases. That form of care was expensive, but it was believed that the restoration of large numbers to reason and to productive labor justified the expense. But close observers began to see what later experience has amply demonstrated, that the erection of hospitals, instead of reducing the number of insane, has, by one of the paradoxes of charity, actually increased it. While many have recovered, the majority merely have their lives prolonged. And fallacious statistics have been exchanged for more reliable methods, which give a smaller ratio of recoveries.

The question what to do with the chronic insane has therefore attracted increasing attention. Hospital treatment is still advocated

and approved for recent cases, but methods of caring for the chronic insane vary very widely. Usually, these are allowed to accumulate in each hospital until its wards are overcrowded, and it becomes necessary to send away enough chronic cases to make room for recent cases which demand instant admission. Those discharged are either cared for at home, in all sorts of ways, including some which are barbarous, or they are confined in poorhouses and jails. Occasionally they are let out to private contractors. In many cases, this state of things has led to the enlargement of insane hospitals, by the erection of additional wings or of detached buildings, till the original design of the hospital, as a curative institution, has been lost sight of, and the so-called hospital has become, in fact, an asylum. A reaction against this policy has taken place in New York and Nebraska, where large, separate asylums for the chronic insane have been carried on; in Wisconsin, where small county asylums, under partial State control, are provided for this class; in Massachusetts, where a few selected cases are boarded out in private families; and in Michigan, where selected patients are housed in cottages some miles from a hospital. Recent legislation in New York has abolished the distinction between hospitals and asylums. In Illinois, Ohio, and some other States there has been a revolt against the tyranny of the "Kirkbride" plan of hospital construction; and a system of detached wards, forming a sort of village, has been substituted for immense buildings of monotonous architecture, with wards all practically alike. The changes just noted have been made in the interest both of economy and of humanity. But, on the other hand, some of the most extravagant expenditures of money for hospital buildings have also been made within the past twenty years.

There has been a steady growth of the idea that the public should care for the insane, so that nearly all the new institutions are owned and controlled by the State, and are not, like many of the older ones, private corporations in receipt of State aid. In a large number of States the distinction between pay and pauper patients has been abolished, and all are cared for alike at the cost of the public treasury. This has naturally led to an increase in the number of private establishments for the wealthy. Owing to the fear of abuses in these private asylums as well as in the public institutions, the legal rights of the insane have been very carefully guarded during this period in nearly every State.

The medical treatment of the insane has also changed greatly for the better. Far less reliance is placed on drugs, and upon harsh measures of repression and restraint. Far more reliance is placed upon healthful modes of life, upon useful occupation, upon amusements, and upon liberty. The treatment of the insane in hospitals has thus been very greatly improved. Less extravagant expectations are entertained of the recovery of the insane, but the treatment is milder and more rational.

Several States have made separate provision for the criminal insane, and for insane criminals, in special asylums. Every State and nearly every Territory, as well as the federal government, has now made some provision for the insane under its jurisdiction.

Idiocy is really a species of insanity, except that it is congenital and practically incurable. Idiot asylums and schools for feeble-minded have not been able to advance the claims of curing their patients made by the insane hospitals. They have therefore had to fight their way by slow degrees into a very modified form of popular favor. What success they have obtained has been almost entirely in the past twenty years. As yet less than half the States have provided schools for the feeble-minded. New York and New Jersey are the only States which have provided custodial institutions for feeble-minded women, in order to prevent the hereditary transmission of defective intelligence. No adequate provision has yet been made for the training of even a quarter of the feeble-minded children of the nation, and very little provision has been made for the custodial care of adult idiots. In only a few States is there adequate care for this class of unfortunates, or any decided public opinion as yet in favor of such care. But the success which has been gained in the institutions for the feeble-minded now existing is a prophecy of a more adequate care for this class in the future.

Ohio has begun a special provision for epileptics in a State hospital. Epileptics elsewhere are either cared for in insane hospitals or schools for feeble-minded or in poorhouses, or are neglected.

Pauperism.

Within the last twenty years the treatment of pauperism in its various forms has shared in the general progress of the nation. Public poor relief is in the hands of the local authorities of each

town, village, city, or county. The only exception to this is the State care in Massachusetts and New York of the paupers not chargeable to any municipality. This local care of pauperism is more or less modified and rendered uniform by the inspection of the State Boards of Charities in States having such boards. In the other States the administration of poor relief is entirely in the hands of local officials. The effect of the inspection by State Boards, which had only just begun twenty years ago, has been very wholesome. It has reduced the cost of poor relief, and increased its efficiency. It has caused many gross abuses, such as the dirt, disorder, idleness, and licentiousness of the old-fashioned poorhouse, to shrink away from the light of publicity thrown on them by proper investigation. Other abuses, like the bringing up of children in poorhouses, have been modified by legislation. The excessive amount of outdoor relief for political reasons or for mistaken charity has been greatly reduced; and in some places, notably in Philadelphia and Brooklyn, all public outdoor relief has been abolished without harm to anybody. As compared with twenty years ago, the poorhouses in States having boards of charity are clean and orderly, are better constructed and better managed, the outdoor relief is more wisely administered, and the cost of efficient and humane management is less than was the opposite kind of management formerly. The effect of this change is felt more or less in the States not having boards of charities. In some cases, voluntary societies, like the Prisoner's Aid Society of Maryland, have inspected the poorhouses, and have awakened public opinion, so as to cause marked reforms. In other cases, local interest in this subject has been aroused, and some local institutions have been reformed, especially in those cities in which charity organization societies exist. The typical poorhouse of twenty years ago, dilapidated and awkward in its architecture, and wasteful and neglectful, and therefore cruel in its management, still exists in out-of-the-way places; but it is fast disappearing, and a more rational and more humane treatment of paupers is taking its place.

During the same time private charities have increased greatly in numbers, and have improved in management. A part of this improvement is due to the fact that more money has been received by such private charities, and they have therefore been able more nearly to carry out their own ideas; and a part is due to the general

enlightenment of public opinion on the treatment of the defective classes. Many private charities have been richly endowed and placed on a permanent foundation during this period. Others have so grown into public confidence that they can depend on regular contributions for their support. The buildings for these private charities have in some cases been erected with a view to their being monuments to the dead rather than homes for the living; and in some cases they have been unwisely restricted in the scope of their work, so that their wealth does not do the good it ought to do. But, as a whole, the private charities have been doing a noble work in wise and economical ways, giving heart and soul to charity, not easily to be found in public institutions. In many cases, these private charities are supported by some church, and are part of its religious work, thus blessing religion by keeping it to the philanthropic ideal of Jesus Christ, and blessing charity by inspiring it with the highest motives. The great growth of private charities during this period is largely the result, direct or indirect, of the great growth of the Christian churches, Catholic and Protestant, during the same period.

One branch of charity — and the most fruitful branch — is preventive work among children. Twenty years ago destitute children who were not provided for by orphan asylums were kept in poorhouses or bound out to persons who had a mercenary motive in taking them. In many States it is now forbidden to have children brought up in poorhouses. Where they are placed out in private families more care is now generally taken that they shall be properly educated, and not overworked. In Massachusetts the system of leasing out children in private families under careful State supervision has been adopted, even to the extent of boarding out all infants. In Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota destitute children are first taken to a State public school, and from this placed out in private families. In Ohio, Connecticut, and Indiana county homes are provided for destitute children. In New York and California, and to a less extent in other States, destitute children are brought up in private orphan asylums at the State expense. There has been serious opposition to this plan on account of its cost and the question as to the wisdom of bringing up children in large institutions. In New York City a system of industrial day-schools, and in San Francisco, Boston, and other cities, free kindergartens have aided

greatly in rescuing neglected children. Several volunteer societies have taken children from the slums of the cities, and found homes for them in the country. But in several interior States vigorous protests have been made against the methods of these societies, and legislation has been enacted to forbid sending such children to them from outside the State. The whole question of preventive work for children has thus been for the past twenty years in a state of experiment. All these different plans have been tried and compared, and the proceedings of this National Conference witness to the vigor and ability with which the advocates of these various plans have clashed in debate. The question as to the best method is far from being settled yet, perhaps may never be settled; but destitute children are far better and more wisely treated now than they generally were twenty years ago. Any of these methods is preferable to the old-fashioned poorhouse. By all of these methods one source of crime and pauperism is cut off, and thousands of children are brought up to a law-abiding and self-supporting citizenship, who otherwise would have been burdens on society.

Crime.

During the last twenty years the treatment of crime has been considerably modified, although not radically changed. Twenty years ago the State prisons were of three general types. The cellular structure of the Eastern Pennsylvania Penitentiary was adapted to the separate confinement and separate labor of prisoners,— an idea which was then, and still is, most admirably carried out in that prison. But the idea itself, which originated in this prison and which has since been followed in several European countries, is not followed in any other State prison in this country.

The prevailing type of prison twenty years ago was adapted to the idea of labor in common. This idea has been carried out in a large number of new buildings, in addition to existing ones enlarged in this period. The structural plan has been substantially the same in all. The details of management, however, have been greatly changed for the better. The brutal punishments which were common twenty years ago have been abolished, and many little indulgences have been granted to the prisoners. But the great change has been made by the general enactment of "good time laws."

Under these laws prisoners are able to shorten the time of their sentence by good behavior. This substitutes hope for fear as the motive of government, and thus the discipline of prisons has been largely changed from a government by physical force to one by moral force. In Minnesota the added incentive is given of a small money payment for faithful work and good conduct, which should not be confused with the Eastern Pennsylvania plan of payment for overwork beyond a fixed task. A very marked feature of this period has been the battle over the contract labor system. During the first half of this period prison after prison was adopting the contract labor system for financial reasons. At one time it seemed that the contract system would become a universal rule; but the labor unions began an agitation against contract labor, and have largely succeeded.

The third type of prisons was the convict lease system. This had twenty years ago only recently been organized in many Southern States. Under this system the contractor bought not only the labor of the prisoners, but the actual control of them. The convicts were sold into a slavery far worse than the negro slavery of forty years ago. The atrocities of this system were first exposed by the greatest Southern novelist at the National Conference of Charities and Correction held at Louisville. Since then there has been an increasing protest in the South against this system, and in several States this disgrace to civilization has either been abolished or has been greatly modified by a State inspection of convict camps.

But in the mean time the idea has arisen that the treatment of criminals should be with the view to reformation rather than punishment. The pioneer institution in this line was the New York State Reformatory at Elmira, established about the beginning of the period we are considering. More recently other States have followed the example of New York in establishing reformatories for selected classes of convicts, generally for first offenders or for women. These, we may believe, are precursors of a general change to the reformatory idea, either by erecting reformatories as such or by still further modifying the management of existing prisons to conform to the reformatory type. Meanwhile legislation has been secured in several States for some form of an indeterminate sentence, with conditional liberation. This is generally limited to sentences to reformatories, as in New York, or in the option of the trial

judge, as in Wisconsin. Ohio is so far the only State in which nearly all sentences are indeterminate.

While these changes have been going on in regard to convicts in the State prison, there has also been a change in the treatment of misdemeanants sentenced for short terms and of persons waiting trial without bail. These classes of prisoners are generally confined in county jails or city prisons, and it is very difficult to get accurate information in regard to them. Where there are enough sentenced prisoners in one place to make it pay in a pecuniary sense, they have generally been kept at labor. Some city or county prisons for misdemeanants are excellent, but in most jails there has been no effort whatever to have labor for prisoners; and we cannot say there has been much progress made in this direction in the past twenty years, except in Michigan, Massachusetts, and Ohio, where many misdemeanants are sent to State reformatories or workhouses. There have, however, in that time been great improvements in the construction of jails and police stations. The use of steel instead of stone has made jails much more secure, and has also greatly improved their sanitary arrangements. Perhaps half of the jails in the United States are well constructed to keep prisoners safely, and are free from the gross sanitary defects of the old-fashioned jail; but at the same time the evils of herding prisoners together in idleness have been greatly intensified, and these newer jails are even more than the older ones schools of crime and vice. This defect in jails which makes the processes of the law create criminals is done away only in a few places, among which we notice the jails in Washington, in Boston, in Mansfield, Ohio, and in some of the eastern counties of Pennsylvania. The jail system of Canada is greatly in advance of that in most parts of the United States.

The government of prisons has not been improved in these twenty years. The prisons are still the foot-balls of partisan politics. The officers from warden to guard are changed with each change of politics, and often with each change of governor, even when the same party remains in power. The appointments to offices in prisons are thus used as a part of the rewards of politics.

Reformatories for juvenile criminals which were doing good work twenty years ago are increased in number, and have had many improvements, among which are the complete abolition of the contract labor system, the wide adoption of the cottage system, and the gen-

eral use of a form of an intermediate sentence with conditional liberation, by placing the boy or girl under the guardianship of the reformatory till he or she arrives at a specified age, generally eighteen or twenty-one. There has grown to be a general agreement among the managers of reform schools as to the best methods of management, and a strong public sentiment in favor of them. In Massachusetts through the probation officers, and in Michigan through the county agents, many children and youth accused of crime are kept from being sentenced even to a reform school.

Deaf-mutes and Blind.

During this period the institutions for deaf-mutes and for the blind have been changing from a charitable to an educational basis, and in accordance with the idea the name of school has been largely substituted for the older name of asylum. A fairly adequate provision has been made for these classes of defectives in nearly every State.

Conclusion.

Some of the most gratifying progress of this period has been made by the various provinces of the Dominion of Canada, as these reports will show.

In the older States east of Ohio and north of the federal capital there have been a dense population and an accumulated wealth which have demanded a growth of institutions as well as organization of them. But these older communities are naturally conservative; and the general progress has been slower in these than in the States farther west, although some of the most radical changes have begun in the East. The chief difficulties there are caused by the political misgovernment of the great cities, which generally are practically independent of their State governments in all that relates to their charities. On the other hand, in New York and Massachusetts civil service reform has been applied to the State charitable institutions, and they are out of politics. There is in the Eastern States a large body of philanthropic persons, with some leisure, who have intelligent ideas on the treatment of the defective classes, and who help to create public opinion. On the other hand, these same States feel the

worst effects of immigration, all the dregs of which remain with them, while a great deal of the best of it goes further west.

In the Far West the population is so new that these twenty years comprise nearly the whole history of their treatment of the defective classes. These States have not yet had time to create and organize their charitable work. It is now in process of formation, and the outlook is very hopeful.

In the South the conditions are widely different from the rest of the Union. The great Civil War put back the South a generation in the accumulation of wealth, and overturned society itself. The great difficulty now is the preponderating negro race in the extreme South, which makes a problem we do not have to deal with at the North. It is not to be wondered at that the South should be backward in providing for the defective classes. The only wonder is that so good work has been done there in certain directions. The South is charitable as far as it is able; and its institutions for charity are some of them models, and all compare favorably with similar institutions elsewhere. But with a scattered population and little accumulated wealth the need and the possibility of charities are less than in the wealthier and more crowded North. But in its treatment of crime the South is far behind the ages, both by the convict lease system still strong in many States and by the lack of reformatories for children. But a public sentiment is growing in the South which will, we believe, change all this for the better at no distant day.

But the greatest progress has been made by the interior States, of which Chicago is the commercial centre. These States were not hampered by old traditions nor burdened by vested interests. They were free to adopt those methods which seemed to be most approved by the wise. Some of the most fruitful experiments of these years have been made successful in the old North-west or in the still newer States just beyond the Mississippi. These States have almost universally adopted some form of State organization for their charities and corrections, they have provided for nearly all classes of charitable or reformatory work, and have established them upon wise plans. Their only great fault has been that the political convulsions of these doubtful States have caused frequent political changes in State institutions, which have been too often used for merely partisan purposes. And still the charitable and correctional institutions of the interior States stand at a high average, and far in advance of what they were twenty years ago.

The National Conference itself is the result of the meeting at Chicago twenty years ago of the three State Boards of Charities of Wisconsin, Illinois, and Michigan. And it is appropriate that we should celebrate our twentieth anniversary by an historical meeting in Chicago as a part of an International Congress of Philanthropy.

ALABAMA.

BY MISS JULIA S. TUTWILER.

This is an old-fashioned experience meeting,— a class-meeting of the Methodist type,— a love feast, we hope, where the sisters and brothers from far and near have come together to tell each other how they are advancing in those higher fields of progress of which no electrical, mechanical, manufacturing, or mining exhibit can give any information.

Sister Alabama, you whose name used to mean, "Here we rest," but is now interpreted, "Here we hustle," it is your turn first. Come and tell us whether you are on rising ground, or cold, or backsliding.

Sister Alabama speaks:—

I. The *orphan children* of my State are nearest of all my charges to my heart. Two decades ago I already had four homes for them, one under the care of my Episcopalian sons, one under that of the older faith, one in the hands of the Presbyterians, and one in charge of my largest city, Mobile. In the course of the last two years my Methodist and Baptist sons have also built homes for these nestlings without nests. I have no such home for my Afric-American orphans, and must have this before we meet again.

Sister Alabama, keep your word.

II. The children of silence and darkness even twenty years ago had long been carefully cherished on my estate, skill and love substituting eyes and ears for them. They are still the objects of my loving care. But in all of my more than 50,000 square miles I have not a single home for the feeble-minded, where the germ of their undeveloped intellect may be quickened by instruction to growth into beauty, goodness, and knowledge. Nor have I any place of shelter and training for epileptic children, many of whom cannot attend an ordinary school on account of frequent attacks of their infirmity.

For shame! for shame, Sister Alabama! Amend your ways in this regard.

III. With hospitals for the sick of my family I am not well provided. There has long been a free hospital in Mobile, and Montgomery and Birmingham have each lately opened such an institution. But there is need in every county, or at least in every Congressional district, of a free hospital, where cases requiring surgical treatment can be properly cared for, free of charge, by skilful physicians. Many a poor father or mother, whose children are now deprived of their care, could be restored to health and to their families by the establishment of such hospitals. In every one of my towns there are noble professors of the healing art who would gladly give their services free of all charge to such destitute sufferers.

Well done for your doctors, Sister Alabama.

IV. Now comes the pleasantest part of my story, for I will tell what I have been doing with those whose minds have been clouded by the mystery of madness. Without vanity, I may say that nowhere in the whole world are greater skill and tenderness lavished upon these unfortunates than within my borders. Indeed, the whole civilized world has acknowledged this fact; and from distant lands thoughtful students of the human brain and its troubles come to examine our methods with these shrouded intellects. Ten years ago Peter Bryce, superintendent of this institution, determined to discard every form of restraint,— strait-jackets, hand-cuffs, crib-beds, and all the old, frightful paraphernalia of Bedlam. He said that he never found reason to repent of his decision. He also discontinued gradually the use of narcotics, until now not more than one-tenth of the amount of these medicines is used that was formerly considered necessary in the hospital. Seclusion is the only method of control now practised with unruly patients, and this is resorted to very, very rarely. The greatest aid to these results has been the practice of giving to all the patients regular work, either indoors or outdoors. The women are employed in the laundry, the sewing-room, the kitchen, and the garden, the men on the farm, in the carpenter-shops, the gas-works, and other industries. Old women from the back-country districts are provided with spinning-wheels and cards; and they soon feel tranquil and at home when they find themselves at work with such familiar implements. This is a trifling detail, but I mention it to show the thoughtful care that has controlled all arrangements of this home for the brain-sick. This utilization of the labor of the patients has made it possible to meet all the expenses of the institution — salaries of officials, wages of employees, fuel, lights, medicine, clothing and food for all inmates, repairs, cost of new buildings (in a word, every expense) — by an appropriation from

the State of a little more than $2 per week for each patient, and the small additional amount paid by thirty or forty pay-patients. But it would be an injustice to this institution and to the honored superintendent, to whom its success is due, not to say that economy was not the object sought by the employment of the patients,— that this is only a side issue. The remedial effect of regular and useful labor performed in cheerful companionship was the real end in view, and it has been attained. All this, and much which there is no time to mention, is due to the broad mind and large heart of my noblest and most lamented son, Peter Bryce, who was needed elsewhere, and has lately been advanced to higher work.

"So many worlds, so much to do,
So little done, such things to be,
How know we what had need of thee,
For thou wert strong as thou wert true?"

There is a shadow side to this picture of the condition of the clouded intellects in my borders; and, as we are here to confess our faults one to another, I will not conceal the truth. More than 1,100 of these unfortunates are under my protecting care; but there are others, perhaps 500, for whom I have provided no room, and who are perishing in jails and poorhouses, or, worse still, under private care, if care it can be called. Horrible accounts have come to me of the condition of these last. One man nailed up in a room, his food thrown to him through a hole in the wall, his bed a pile of rags, his abode a sty of filthiness unspeakable; a woman chained in an out-house, fed like a beast, naked and frenzied, no warmth in the coldest days of winter,— these are some of the tales that have reached my ears since I was sorrowfully compelled to refuse to receive chronic cases.

O Sister Alabama, Sister Alabama! don't show your face at our class-meeting again until you have built a home for those chronic cases.

V. My State is divided into sixty-six counties, and each of these is expected to provide itself with a poorhouse; but some prefer to give assistance to the destitute at their own homes. There are evils connected with both modes of administering aid. It is hard to say which are the less. As to the condition of my poorhouses, the less said about that the better.

VI. Of course, every county besides its poorhouse must have, alas! its jail. As a rule, only the unconvicted, those supposed by law to be innocent, are confined in these. Their condition is much worse than that of convicted prisoners, either at the penitentiary or at the convict mining camps. The best jails, our model jails, are iron cages enclosed in brick buildings. There in a cell about seven

by eight feet in size, two or three men in each cell, through winter's piercing cold and summer's burning heats, these men, whom the law calls innocent, and a large per cent. of whom are afterwards discharged, sit, or rather crouch, like beasts in their lair; for usually no seats are provided. Nothing to do! nothing to see! nothing to hear! nothing to think of but his wretchedness! Some one has said that the worst use to which you can put a man is to hang him. Now, I take issue with that statement. Hanging is certainly a bad use to make of a man, but hardly the worst. His body goes back to the elements to perform new functions, his soul goes back to Him who made it, and he knows what to do with the work of his own hands. But the man who lies in a county jail, his body foul with dirt and bloated with disease induced by lack of exercise, fresh air, and healthful food, his soul growing more brutalized day by day,—how could you put anything to a worse use than this? Individuals give much more careful heed to their interests than communities. The laboring man's ability to labor is part of the capital of the community. What individual will allow his capital to rust away unused till it becomes unusable, as the community does in this instance?

But a faint ray of light has penetrated these dark holes, and we hope it will gradually illumine them. Ten years ago a circular letter addressed to each of the sixty-six jailers of the State revealed the fact that only about half a dozen of the county jails were supplied with any means of warmth in the winter, or with water other than that brought in pails at the pleasure of the jailer. There was no pretence of a sewerage system. The only inspection was a semi-annual one made by the grand jury, after special preparation by the jailer. The publication of these facts induced the passage of a bill giving warmth and a water supply to every jail in the State, and making obligatory constant inspection by the probate judge and county clerk.

There are three provisions which must be made as speedily as possible if we are to preserve the name of a Christian community: 1. There must be a court-yard attached to every jail, and every inmate must be allowed at least two hours' daily exercise in the open air. 2. Employment must be given to those who are willing to work, and a part of the wages earned must be applied to the support of their families, when they have families. 3. Instruction in the elements of secular and sacred knowledge must be provided for those who will accept it, if possible on week-days, certainly on Sundays. Every Prussian jail has a schoolmaster attached.

VII. My convict system is entering upon a period of transition, so that it is difficult to talk about it just now. The friends here know what I must sorrowfully admit; namely, that in the days of my deep poverty, through utter inability to feed and clothe my wayward children, I was compelled to adopt the lease system, which has been well described as one that combines all the evils of slavery

without one of its ameliorating features. Perhaps it is not so well known that in my domain alone this system has been lightened by the establishment of night-schools taught by Christian prison missionaries, who also have charge of daily hospital services, of Sunday-schools, and the Prison Christian Association. The inadequate number of teachers and the presence of two races which keep instinctively apart lessen very much the efficiency of these schools.

The distinction that is made between State and county convicts is also a cause of innumerable evils, as it establishes sixty-six convict systems, each differing more or less from that of the State at large.

VIII. What I have to say on the last head of my talk — reformatories for the young and for women — will resemble somewhat the celebrated chapter on Snakes in the History of Iceland: "There are no snakes at all on the island." We have no reformatories for any age or sex. The new system which is to be adopted aims to remedy these defects; but it will be several years before it can go into operation, and no one knows what changes intervening legislatures may make. Again and again I have urged upon my sons assembled in their legislature the duty, the necessity, of providing these moral hospitals for the healing of those not yet thoroughly diseased; and again and again they have refused to comply with my request. Through a false idea of economy they have hitherto deemed it better to let a child grow up to be a professional criminal rather than to spend a few hundred dollars a year in training him into an honest and useful citizen.

O, Sister Alabama, Sister Alabama! put on sackcloth and ashes, and weep and fast and pray that you may be forgiven for having trained your sons so ill that they have dared to weigh a human soul against the sparkling dust of earth which we call silver and gold. Woe, woe to them! and woe to you! if you cannot open their blinded eyes, and make them see the difference between shadows and realities,— between time and eternity.

ALASKA.

BY REV. SHELDON JACKSON.

I have the honor to report for the Territory of Alaska that we are in such an unorganized condition that we have no penitentiary, asylum for the insane, juvenile reformatory, or almshouse. During the year ending June 30, 1892, eleven persons were sentenced to the Territorial prison, which is simply a jail. Our white population is very small, and the natives have not come very much under our laws.

ARKANSAS.

List of the charitable and correctional institutions maintained from the State treasury: —

Institutions.	*Approximate Value of Plant.*	*Annual Appropriation.*
Lunatic Asylum,	$350,000.00	$93,686.00
Blind School,	80,000.00	41,069.00
Deaf-mute Institute,	60,000.00	73,070.00
Confederate Soldiers' Home,	15,000.00	13,830.00

The term of years of attendance at the Deaf-mute Institute has been increased to ten years.

The boards of trustees of the Insane Asylum, Blind School, and Deaf-mute Institute have been consolidated into one board for the management of the three institutions,— one member of board from each Congressional district, with the State Treasurer as *ex-officio* chairman.

CALIFORNIA.

BY W. E. HALE.

There are, as a matter of fact, but few charitable organizations in existence to-day in this State that were in existence in 1873. The following associations had an existence at that time: the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, 1868; German General Benevolent Society, 1871; Protestant Episcopal Old La-

dies' Home, 1869; Ladies' Protection and Relief Society, 1853; Pacific Hebrew Orphan Asylum, 1871; First Hebrew Benevolent Society, 1850; Ladies' Seamen's Fund, 1858; Sailors' Home, 1856; California Woman's Hospital, 1868,—all of San Francisco; Howard Benevolent Society, Sacramento; Protestant Orphan Asylum of Sacramento, 1867; Magdalen Asylum, San Francisco; San Francisco Female Hospital; San Francisco Lying-in and Foundling Hospital; Old Woman's Home, San Francisco; Sisters of Mercy Hospital, Los Angeles; Stockton Ladies' Benevolent Association; St. Luke's Hospital, San Francisco; Marysville Benevolent Association; Napa Ladies' Relief and Protestant Society; Placersville Ladies' Relief Society; Grass Valley Relief Society; Vallejo Ladies' Benevolent Society; Oakland Relief Society; San José Benevolent Society; Nevada City Benevolent Society; San Diego Benevolent Society; with presumably others that existed then, but have since discontinued or reorganized under different names and management.

The societies that have reported to me in my compilation of statistical reports for 1892 are as follows: Associated Charities, San Francisco; Allgemeine Deutsche Unterstuetzung Gesellschaft, San Francisco; Armitage Orphanage for Boys, San Mateo; Boys and Girls' Aid Society, San Francisco; British Benevolent Society, San Francisco; Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, San Francisco; Charity Organization Society, Pasadena; Central Gospel Mission, San Francisco; Christian Union Mission, San Francisco; Children's Industrial Home, San Diego; Christ's Rescue Home of Oakland; Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, San Francisco; Children's Auxiliary, San Francisco; Danish Ladies' Relief Society, San Francisco; Eureka Benevolent Society, San Francisco; Examiners' Christmas Fund, San Francisco; Florence Home for Erring Girls, San Francisco; Florence Home for Erring Girls, San José; Fred Finch Orphanage, Fruitvale; Free Dispensary of Los Angeles; First Hebrew Benevolent Society, San Francisco; Fruit and Flower Mission, San Francisco; Foundling Home, San Francisco; French Ladies' Benevolent Society, San Francisco; Female Orphanage, Santa Cruz; German General Benevolent Society, San Francisco; Grand Army Republic, State of California; Good Templars' Home, Vallejo; German Ladies' Benevolent Society, San Francisco; San Francisco Hebrew Benevolent Society; Howard Benevolent Association, Sacramento; Hebrew

Ladies' Sewing Society, San Francisco; The Helpers, San Francisco; Homes for Aged and Infirm Females, San Francisco, King's Daughters' Home for Incurables, San Francisco; Lick Old Ladies' Home, San Francisco; Ladies' Protestant and Relief Society, San Francisco; Little Sisters' Infant Shelter, San Francisco; Ladies' Seamen's Fund, San Francisco; Ladies' Relief Society, San Francisco; Ladies' Hebrew Benevolent Society, San Francisco; Methodist Episcopal Deaconess Home, San Francisco; Maria Kip Orphanage for Girls, San Francisco; Mayor of San Francisco Mizpah Club, San Francisco; Medical Department University of California, San Francisco; Nursery for Friendless Children, San Francisco; Old People's Home, San Francisco; Oakland Home, West Oakland; Protestant Episcopal Old Ladies' Home, West Oakland; Protestant Episcopal Old Ladies' Home, Pacific Homœopathic Dispensary, Pacific Hebrew Orphan Asylum and Home Society, Pacific Dispensary for Children, Rural Health Retreat Association, Polyclinic, Benevolent Society, Orphan Asylum, Swiss Relief Society, Sailors' Home, Southern Homœopathic Dispensary, Veterans of the Mexican War (associated), Woman's Relief Corps (Grand Army Republic), Young Woman's Christian Association, City and County Hospital, St. Luke's Hospital, Allgemeine Deutsche Unterstuetzung Gesellschaft Hospital, California Woman's Hospital: all of San Francisco; Woman's Relief Corps (Home Association), San José.

There are at present no less than 46 county hospitals and almshouses in the State, with an aggregate population of 3,240. Probably not more than 20 per cent. of these had an existence in 1870.

As to State institutions, there were in existence in 1873 the State prison at San Quentin, with a population of 931, and the Insane Asylum of California at Stockton, with 1,156 inmates. At present we have State prison at San Quentin, State prison at Folsom, with an aggregate population of 1,958; June 30, 1892, the Whittier Reform School and the Preston School of Industry at Ione (not yet in operation), with an aggregate population of 299; the Insane Asylum at Napa, the Insane Asylum at Stockton, the Insane Asylum at Agnew (together with the private (Clark's) asylum not reported), containing an aggregate of 3,821; the Institution for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind at Berkeley, Industrial Home for Adult Blind at Oakland, aggregating a population of 308; the Home for the Feeble-minded at Glen Ellen, 237; and the Mendocino State Asylum for Insane at

Ukiah; and Southern California State Asylum for the Insane and Inebriates (not yet in operation),—all of report, June 30, 1892.

The population of homes for aged June 30, 1892, as far as I have been able to obtain, numbers about 249; and orphanages, about 751; number of boarded-out children, at public expense, 2,755. The State allows $100 for every orphan, and $75 for each half-orphan.

The amounts appropriated in 1874 for the support of the two institutions then in existence (namely State prison at San Quentin and the State Insane Asylum at Stockton) were $200,000 and $420,000 respectively. The amount appropriated for the forty-three and forty-four fiscal years ending June 30, 1892 and 1893, was $1,990,800.

For private charitable institutions there was appropriated for the year 1874 the sum of $45,500. In the appropriations for the year 1890–91 the amount was in the neighborhood of $250,000.

The population of prisoners serving in county jails June 30, 1892, was 1,439, and in city jails 286. I have no data from which to make up a like report for 1873. The population of California in 1870 was 560,247 (criminal population, 931), and in 1890 1,208,130 (criminal population, 1,958).

INSTITUTIONS UNDER STATE CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost of institutions to June 30, 1892.	Operating expenses of institutions for fiscal year ending June 30, 1892.	Total number of days' board to inmates during fiscal year ending June 30, 1892.
State Prison,	San Quentin,	—	$194,468.17	446,760
State Prison,	Folsom,	—	109,807.11	253,675
Preston School,	Ione,	$155,519.48	177,915.24	—
Whittier Reform School,	Whittier,	194,869.97	22,817.97	127,500
Insane Asylum,	Napa,	—	—	—
Insane Asylum,	Stockton,	—	—	192,746
Insane Asylum,	Agnew, San José,	705,000.00	109,642.39	292,032
Institution for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind,	Berkeley,	—	52,352.60	69,350
Industrial Home for Adult Blind,	Oakland,	177,118.89	25,000.00	26,280
Home for the Feeble-minded,	Glen Ellen,	510,835.90	46,665.23	21,536
Mendocino State Asylum for Insane,	Ukiah,	339,000.00	—	—
Southern California State Asylum for the Insane and Inebriates,	—	199,000.00	—	—

COLORADO.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER STATE CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost of institutions to Nov. 30, 1892.	Operating expenses of institutions for fiscal year ending Nov. 30, 1892.	Total number of days' board for year.
State Penitentiary,	Cañon City,	$100,000	$168,900	$208,050
State Reformatory,	Buena Vista,	7,600	13,200	13,195
Insane Asylum,	Pueblo,	324,800	47,900	100,010
Industrial School,	Golden,	56,500	35,000	60,573
School for Deaf and Blind,	Colorado Springs,	195,900	42,300	42,300
Soldiers' and Sailors' Home,	Monte Vista,	75,000	10,000	15,120
Total,		$759,800	$297,300	$439,148

CONNECTICUT.

BY J. J. M'COOK.

Charity.— Two steps have been taken during the past twenty years which touch closely the theory and life of public charity. The first is the legislative prohibition of contract in pauper care; the second, the assertion by the State of its right to see that none of its children are brought up in an obviously indecent way.

As to the first, the larger and many of the older towns had long been provided with poor, or "town," houses which were on the whole adequate, even though they occasionally exhibited weak points in discipline, not unlike those which the commission of 1834 found in their English prototype. But in the case of towns not so provided, though there was nothing to authorize,— and this should be well noted,— there was also nothing to prevent the disposal of the care of the poor by public or private auction, just as the persons of able-bodied idlers and vagabonds may still be disposed of in two of our States. There was possibility of demoralization and inhumanity in this, and the prohibition of the system merits special mention here.

It is likely that the law may be now and then evaded in part, but never, I judge, so as to radically depart from its spirit.

It is not unworthy of remark, however, that the State still does for its own poor what it prohibits to the towns. There is no State almshouse; and State paupers are cared for by contract with a private individual, with such results as might be anticipated.

With respect to the other matter, the statute creating temporary homes for children is interesting for what it permits and what it prohibits. It prohibits the admission of any child between two and sixteen into any poorhouse. It permits the permanent removal of children who are suffering from evil example or treatment of their natural guardians to county establishments, suggestively styled homes. Along with this class go pauper children in general. The act has been severely criticised as to theory and effect, as was sure to happen. But it seems to have nearly passed the apologetic stage now, and is hardly likely to be repealed or essentially modified. Children are removed as soon as possible from these homes for adoption into suitable families.

Cases of incurable or contagious disease are debarred from the county homes, and for such there is in consequence at the present time no adequate provision.

Imbecile children have come to be cared for within the past twenty years in a separate institution. The charge is borne by the State.

The case of the insane shows no important change. The State hospital is now able to offer an asylum for these unfortunates at a rate which makes it a virtual economy to towns and to private individuals to accept its offices, and the number of insane kept in almshouses and private residences is small in consequence. The prohibition of contract care already alluded to is of specially beneficent force here.

The number of the pauper insane in some localities has increased of late far beyond the rate of population increase. The cause of this is obscure.

Intemperance continues to be the greatest known cause in the aggregate of insanity, and those who are familiar with the administration of public charity will not need to be told that the pauper contingent is at least not behind the rest in this respect.

There is no State establishment for the blind or the deaf and

dumb. But a maximum annual appropriation for each is settled by general statute.

While there is no State institution for the deaf and dumb, the ground is covered by a private corporation, with ample facilities, which is at the capital of the State, and has the distinction of being the first in the field for all America.

In the administration of charity there has been a notable advance in watchfulness and scrutiny, resulting in one town in the large saving of $38,000 annually, or nearly a mill on the entire tax list, without any perceptible suffering or even complaint, and with considerable clearing up of the moral atmosphere.

There has also been a pronounced tendency towards organization and conference for the prevention of overlapping and imposition.

The wave of vagabond legislation which passed over a large part of the country in the latter half of the seventies did not neglect Connecticut, and there were at one time as many as forty tramps in the State prison. At last accounts there was not one. The falling off is not due exclusively to the disappearance of the cause. If generalization from the experience of several States be not too hazardous, it is in part due to the withdrawal of the special fee, or bounty, offered for the arrest of this class of vagrants.

Before leaving this branch of my subject, it may not be amiss to state that such inquiry as I have been able to make seems to show that fully three-fifths of the cost of public and private charity in the aggregate is due to intemperance.

Correction.— The most important step in the history of correction during the period now before us is, so far as theory is concerned, the statute relating to incorrigibles. This provides a term of twenty-five years in the State prison on third conviction "in this State" for any crime of which the minimum penalty is two years' detention. But the board of directors may parole the incorrigible any time after the expiration of his third two years' term. This law has been on the statute books for six years, but has never been used. The limitation of its scope to convictions secured in this State makes it practically a dead letter.

A bill is now before the Judiciary Committee of the present legislature, providing for a reformatory with indeterminate sentence, parole, and supervision of paroled prisoners for drunkards, neglecters of their families, and the like. It is of historical interest that

this proposed legislation emanates from a committee appointed by the town of Hartford to study the alms question.

The presence in politics of that element in the population which this projected institution is meant to provide for has recently begun to attract a portion of that attention to which its importance has long entitled it. And within a year use has been made of a statute previously thought by many to be impracticable, whereby two persons were prevented from being admitted to the franchise because of evidence produced to show that they did not possess the "good moral character" which the constitution and the law require, one of them having served a term in prison, the other, though only just of age, having been ten times before the police court, and several times in jail. These instances, though not numerous enough to be of real importance politically, are cited here on account of their significance from the standpoint of criminal legislation.

The mechanism for dealing with convicts has undergone no formal change. There are a Reform School for Boys and an Industrial School for Girls, both established back of 1873. The town workhouse, the county jail, and the State prison still provide in rising scale for the varying ranks of misdemeanants and felons.

The workhouse is a town institution, and is of rare occurrence, though its absence is often lamented.

The jail is a county institution. It tends more and more to be overcrowded in city neighborhoods and to shrivel to insignificance in the more agricultural counties. In no instance is it of real utility to the prisoner or the community, owing to the shortness of the detention and the consequent impossibility of organizing either its labor or its discipline in an effectual manner.

The State prison belongs to what is sometimes called the old-fashioned school. It exhibits the positive qualities of being disagreeable and of holding its inmates securely, and it does not fail to show marks of advance on the line of reforming and humanizing influence. The parti-colored dress has been in part abandoned, and the rule as to looking up while at work relaxed. And night-school and library and Sunday-school work, with occasional entertainments, are freely and increasingly used. An appropriation has just been recommended for an insane annex, through which much embarrassment and some cruelty, perhaps without this unavoidable, may be averted.

There is a vigorous Prison Association, with the usual organization and aims.

The State Board of Charity, which is a recent creation, has very full powers in respect to visitation of all penal and charitable institutions and to remedying abuses found to exist. Its influence has not been as marked as might have been expected.

If this brief sketch fail to exhibit that rapid progress found in some quarters, it is to be remembered that the comparative antiquity of her civilization and its development, no less than the temperament of her children, disposes a State like Connecticut to conservatism.

But it is believed by those who know and love her that her step, if slow, will be found to be firm and true.

DELAWARE.

BY EMALEA P. WARNER.

In the past twenty years we note a marked change in our philanthropies; and, though they are chiefly under private management, several of them are recipients of county aid. Delaware has one State institution, the "Delaware State Hospital" at Farnhurst, New Castle County, for the care and treatment of the insane. The building is commodious and modern in its construction, and is under the admirable superintendency of Dr. D. D. Richardson. Its cost was $180,716.98; total expenses for the year ending Dec. 31, 1892, $25,704.06; number of days' board to inmates, 70,445; number of inmates admitted during the year, 201.

Delaware has no State penitentiary, but in each of her three counties she has both a jail and an almshouse. The present New Castle County jail was erected in 1858. It is very inadequate to meet the demands of our growing community, as only trifling alterations have been made since its construction. The largest number it sheltered at one time last year was 214; and often 19 were huddled together in a room of eight and one-half by fourteen feet,—a veritable school for crime and idleness. The whipping post is still a form of punishment for special classes of offences. There has been no system of labor introduced save some stone-breaking by tramps. The law requiring this was secured through our municipal judge, a valued member of our Associated Charity Board.

Kent County jail is in Dover, our State capital. It is a small building, erected in 1872. It is reported as being cleanly, but devoid of suitable rules and regulations. The largest number of inmates last year at one time was 60. There are no labor methods employed.

Sussex County jail is in Georgetown. It is a small building, erected in 1866. There are no labor methods.

The New Castle County almshouse is a fine building at Farnhurst, three miles from Wilmington. It was built in 1884, at a cost of $150,000; has steam heat, good sanitary regulations, and is well managed. For the year ending June 30, 1892, there were 193 persons sheltered, 27 of whom were colored. Many were old or sick. Operating expenses were $21,478.44. Outside relief was granted from the poor fund to New Castle County dependants, amounting to $7,841.92.

Kent County almshouse was first erected in 1811, and other buildings added in 1853 and 1854. It is not modern, and improvements are needed.

Sussex County almshouse was erected in 1884. Its average number of inmates last year was 54. There are no institutions under private management in Kent and Sussex Counties, but in New Castle County a number are centred in Wilmington.

Twenty years ago our city could boast of nothing outside of the Home for Aged Women, the Home for Friendless Children, and two worthy organizations, the Friends' Female Benevolent Society, founded in 1800, and the Bible Society, organized in 1821; and upon these early philanthropies rested the responsibility of dispensing the charity of our town. But within this score of years the first-named institution (exclusively under the control of women) has constructed a fine "Home," fully worthy of the name, which embraces forty-five rooms, and this past year a nursery costing some $10,000, the bequest of a valued manager. The management is admirable, both financial and executive, and commands the admiration and respect of our community for its good work. Its operating expenses for 1892 were $9,316.24.

The Home for Friendless and Destitute Children is in its twenty-eighth year. Its beginning was small, but from time to time it sought larger quarters, until three years ago the management erected a beautiful home in the suburbs of our city, overlooking the

Delaware River. Here ample playgrounds are afforded the little ones, and pure, fresh air is enjoyed. The best modern methods are employed, including a kindergarten and a nursery for babies. Its running expenses for 1892 were $6,922.32, and 20,075 days' board was given inmates. The control is composed jointly of men and women whose names are sufficient guarantee for its excellent management.

The Ferris Industrial School for Boys, about three miles from Wilmington, is entering its eighth year. This school is the result of a bequest for the purpose from the late John Ferris. At present it contains 30 boys, all of whom were committed by their parents or by our municipal court. The cost of building and grounds was $40,200; of a new addition, $12,000. After receiving 6,000 merit marks, boys are placed out on trial in some occupation. Their employment outside of school hours is chiefly in duties pertaining to farm or domestic life; but the managers, who are unfailing in their efforts to better the condition of the boys, are hopeful of instituting some methods of industrial training. The levy court appropriated $2,000 to this school last year.

The Homœopathic Hospital was incorporated in 1888, the management having purchased a building formerly used as a private hospital for the sum of $20,000. This building was fitted up to meet temporary demands; but, finding its accommodations inadequate, Mr. and Mrs. J. Taylor Gause erected a beautiful addition, at a cost of about $30,000, which they presented to the corporation. The various departments are medical, surgical, maternity, gynæcological, eye and ear, and dental. The number of patients last year was 350; number of beds, 53. They own an ambulance for the wounded, and have a training school for nurses. Current expenses, $6,511.56. It is under a joint board of administration.

The Delaware Hospital (allopathic) was built in 1889, at a cost of over $38,000. The past year a surgical ward was erected, chiefly through the efforts of the women, as a "memorial" to Dr. L. P. Bush, an honored physician and citizen. The running expenses last year were $5,127.74; number of days' service, 4,780; number of beds, 32. The nursing is done by regularly graduated nurses, but it has no training school. The Home for Aged Men or Couples, the gift of George G. Lobdell, his former country residence, is about ready to open.

The Delaware Industrial School for Girls has just completed its

organization, and is now at work. It is designed to accomplish the same work for wayward girls that the Ferris School does for boys. This demand has come through the admirable work of our police matrons, whose noble efforts are worthy of special recognition.

The Associated Charities is now entering its eighth year. We have now nine auxiliary branches to our centre; namely, a sick diet kitchen, country week, towel mission, fuel savings fund, women's library, penny provident fund, plant-growing mission, wood-yard, and the free kindergarten. The last three have been instituted within a year. The Female Benevolent Society employed 160 women last year. The Provident Society employed 106 women.

Our last State Conference invited delegates from all local and State philanthropies. The afternoon session was devoted chiefly to reports from the several institutions. The admirable character of the reports showed the advanced feeling on such subjects. The result was that a committee was appointed to present a bill to our legislature for a State Board of Charities and State penitentiary.

Institutions under State Control.

State Hospital.—Total cost to Nov. 30, 1892, $180,716; operating expenses for year ending Nov. 30, 1892, $25,704; total number of days' board for year, $70,445. No other State institutions in Delaware.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

The government of the District of Columbia is exceptional, there being nothing at all like it elsewhere in the United States. Executive power is vested in three commissioners, two civilians appointed by the President and comfirmed by the Senate, and one army officer detailed for this duty. The commissioners can enact municipal ordinances, but all general legislation is enacted directly by Congress.

The revenues of the District are derived one-half from the federal treasury and one-half from a tax on the assessed valuation of private property in the District. All appropriations are made by Congress in an Annual District Appropriation Bill. Occasionally a given ex-

penditure is charged wholly upon the proceeds of local taxation, and occasionally one is defrayed entirely from the federal treasury.

Convicts are turned over to the Federal Department of Justice, and by that department placed in the penitentiary at Albany, N.Y. Their care is paid for at the rate of thirty cents per day per man.

"The Washington Asylum" comprises (1) almshouse, (2) hospital, (3) male workhouse, (4) female workhouse, all under an intendant appointed by the commissioners. A board of visitors appointed by the commissioners have powers of visitation only.

The jail is a purely federal institution, under a warden appointed by the Supreme Court of the District, and subject to the supervision of the Attorney-General.

The Government Hospital for the Insane is a purely federal institution, under the Department of the Interior. The superintendent is appointed by the Secretary of the Interior, and a board of visitors by the President of the United States. Designed primarily for the insane who had previously served in the army or navy. Cares for all the District insane.

The District commissioners supervise expenditures, and approve estimates for the reformations of juvenile offenders. The specific control is vested in boards of trustees appointed by the President of the United States on the recommendation of the Attorney-General. The trustees appoint administrative officers.

The Superintendent of Charities has powers of visitation, report, and estimate over all private institutions receiving money from the District revenues.

The specific control of the private charitable institutions is vested in boards of trustees, which are either close corporations or are chosen by corporations of contributing members under the general act for eleemosynary corporations or under specific acts of incorporation.

Convicts are supported by the District.

The hospitals for the insane are supported by the federal government, except that it receives from the District revenues an amount sufficient to pay for the care of as many patients as a normal population the size of that of the District might be supposed to furnish.

Almshouses and workhouses are supported by District revenues.

The jail is supported entirely by federal government.

Private charitable institutions are supported by endowments, earnings, popular subscriptions, in two cases aided by subsidies from the federal treasury, and in some twenty-five cases by subsidies from the District revenues.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER FEDERAL CONTROL.*

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost of institution to June 30, 1892.	Operating expenses of institution for fiscal year ending in 1892.	Total number of days' board to inmates during fiscal year ending in 1892.
State Prison,	Albany, N.Y.,	—	$27,477.95	83,765
Jail,	East Washington,	$535,548.43	42,367.16	100,650
Government Hospital for the Insane,	Anacostia, D.C.,	1,500,000.00	390,580.43	576,556
Total,		$2,035,548.43	$512,950.54	760,971

*The Soldiers' Home, with property and endowment valued at several millions, does not desire to be classed as a charity. The same is true of the Naval Hospital and the Naval Dispensary. All are purely federal institutions.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER DISTRICT CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost of institutions to June 30, 1892.	Operating expenses of institutions for fiscal year ending June 30, 1892.	Total number of days' board to inmates during fiscal year ending June 30, 1892.
Washington Asylum (including almshouse, hospital, and workhouse),	Cor. 19th and C Sts., S.E.,	$434,000	$63,494.71	198,195
Reform School for Boys,	Bladensburg Road,	*300,000	42,344.77	73,566
Reform School for Girls,	Aqueduct Road,	†45,000	—	—
Columbia Hospital for Women,	25th and Penn. Ave., N.W.,	300,000	23,256.96	19,592
Municipal Lodging-house and Woodyard,	312 12th St., N.W.,	‡12,000	—	—

*Estimated. †Buildings in process of construction. Will open during summer 1893.

‡Opened Jan. 15, 1893. Property to the value indicated is loaned to the District, without charge, by a private association.

FLORIDA.

List of the charitable and correctional institutions maintained from the State treasury: —

Institutions.	*Year Organized.*	*Approximate Value of Plant.*	*Annual Appropriation.*
Asylum for Indigent Lunatics, ...	1874	$80,000	$45,000
Deaf and Blind Institute, ...	1884	15,000	6,000

No correctional institutions; convicts leased out.

No dependants are kept in institutions of other States.

No aid is granted from the State treasury to private institutions of any sort.

GEORGIA.

The list of the charitable and correctional institutions maintained from the State treasury: —

Institutions.	*Year. Organized.*	*Approximate Value of Plant.*	*Annual Appropriation.*
Lunatic Asylum, ...	1842	$1,000,000	$200,000
Deaf and Dumb Asylum, ...	1838	100,000	19,000
Asylum for the Blind, ...	1852	200,000	16,000

State penitentiary self-supporting, convicts leased out. Leases expire in 1899. No buildings.

No dependants are kept in institutions of other States.

No aid is granted from the State treasury to private institutions of any sort.

Quite a number of counties have poorhouses, well kept and provided for. The county jails are being generally improved, and many new jails built; but great improvement is still needed.

Two orphan asylums have been recently established in Atlanta through the munificence of Mr. Sam. Inman and Mr. M. C. Kiser, of that city; and the Grady Hospital has recently been established by the city of Atlanta. The Baptists have an orphanage recently established in Atlanta, and the Methodists have one of some years' standing at Decatur, Ga., and another near Macon, Ga. Hebrew Orphan Home (Atlanta), magnificent institution recently established.

There is a reformatory in Richmond County (a county institution), and a splendid institution under the control of the Baptists. Catholic Orphan Home (Savannah). Episcopalians have an orphanage at Macon. Home for the Friendless (private institution under care of ladies of Atlanta).

IDAHO.

BY DR. JOHN W. GIVENS.

Twenty years ago Idaho was practically an uninhabited desert, with a few mining camps scattered among its mountains and a few squalid Indians roaming over its vast plains.

The Idaho Insane Asylum has been in operation only seven years. Previous to 1886 Idaho's insane were sent to the Oregon Asylum for Insane, and cared for there at a cost of $6 per capita per week. Idaho has at present a population of 100,000, and there are in the asylum 100 patients. This gives the low proportion of 1 insane to every 1,000 sane persons in the State. The number of insane is, however, increasing.

Of the forms of insanity, the depressed and sluggish, as melancholia and dementia, are found here less frequently than the active forms; namely, mania and delusional insanity. An interesting feature also to be noted here is the rare occurrence of tuberculosis among the insane. There is not a case of tuberculosis among the one hundred patients now in this asylum, and there have been but three deaths of patients from that cause during the seven years of its existence.

These conditions may be accounted for partially, perhaps, by the high altitude, the dry, aseptic atmosphere, and the fact that a large part of the population is composed of comparatively young people. The asylum consists of a plain, practically fire-proof, brick building, which will accommodate one hundred and fifty patients. The patients and attendants made the brick, hauled the sand, mixed the mortar, and carried the materials to the masons and plasterers to construct the building. The patients and attendants have made a farm of one hundred and sixty acres from raw sage-brush land, have made irrigating ditches all over it, and from this farm is produced, by their labor, all of the vegetables they consume, with some to

spare. A carload of potatoes and other vegetables were last year sold from the surplus, and sent to feed the hungry Texans. All of the milk needed is produced by the asylum cows, and milked by the patients and attendants. All the butter they can eat will be produced on the asylum farm the coming year, also the wheat to make their bread. All the pork consumed by the asylum population is produced on the farm, and the hogs are fed and cared for by the patients. A fruit orchard of ten acres has been planted this spring.

In an isolated, sparsely settled region, with but a small force of asylum employees and but scanty resources, little can as yet be done in the way of providing amusement for patients. Regular employment, however, with the interest incidental to it, is more normal and more conducive to the return of sanity than an alternation of idleness and amusement. And in a pioneer State like ours the people do not have a contempt for the value of the labor of insane patients, and the patients do not have a contempt for the comfortable quarters and the good food their labor produces.

The asylum buildings and grounds are valued at $91,650, while their actual cost has been only $54,000, the difference of $34,650 representing the saving to the State by the labor of patients and regular asylum employees on the buildings and grounds.

The cost of care and maintenance of the patients for the past six months has been sixty-eight and one-half cents per capita per diem. The death-rate has varied from eight to four per cent. during the seven years.

In November, 1889, the main building was destroyed by fire. It has since been rebuilt on a much more desirable site.

While there are comparatively few who are interested in the care and treatment of the insane, it is due to the State officials and directors who have been connected with this institution from time to time to say that they have been and are in sympathy with the best and most modern methods of treating the insane.

There is no other charitable State institution in Idaho. The legislature of 1892–93 made a small appropriation for a Reform School for Boys.

At the State penitentiary the prisoners have been kept in idleness until the present year. They are now employed in erecting prison buildings and cultivating the prison farm.

Name.	Location.	Total cost of institutions to June 30, 1892.	Operating expenses of institutions for fiscal year.	Total number of days' board to inmates during fiscal year.
Idaho Penitentiary, ...	Boisé City,	—	$24,525.46	33,595
The Idaho Insane Asylum, . .	Blackfoot,	$54,000	*25,000.00	29,363

* Including furnishing of new building.

Population of prisoners serving sentence in the penitentiary June 30, 1892, 91.

Population of the asylum June 30, 1892, 86.

ILLINOIS.

BY J. W. WHIPP.

The history of the State charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions of Illinois, for the past twenty years, can be briefly given as follows: —

State Institutions.— The following table shows the number of inmates at the close of the fiscal year 1872, and at the close of the fiscal year 1892, respectively, and the increase in the number in each of the institutions: —

Institution.	1872.	1892.	Increase.
Northern Hospital for the Insane, ...	183	1,032	849
Eastern Hospital for the Insane, ...	–	1,753	1,753
Central Hospital for the Insane, ...	459	1,198	739
Southern Hospital for the Insane, ...	–	871	871
Asylum for Insane Criminals, ...	–	113	113
Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, . . .	294	485	191
Institution for the Blind, ...	66	192	126
Asylum for Feeble-minded Children, . . .	100	456	356
Soldiers' and Sailors' Home, ...	–	830	830
Soldiers' Orphans' Home, ...	292	411	119
Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary, ...	20	134	114
State Reform School, ...	86	330	244
Northern Penitentiary, ...	1,255	1,420	165
Southern Penitentiary, ...	–	610	610
Total, ...	2,755	9,835	7,080

The population of the State institutions has nearly doubled once in each five years. The increase in the population of the penal and reformatory institutions has been only 1,119; but of the charitable institutions it has been 5,961. The number of inmates of State charitable institutions is very nearly five times as great as it was twenty years ago.

Jails.— The census of 1870 shows 1,795 prisoners in the State at that date. This is an error: the probable number was about 2,200. Either the jails or the Chicago House of Correction were not included. All inferences as to increase of crime in the United States, drawn from the censuses prior to 1880, are baseless and misleading. The number of jail prisoners in 1872 is not precisely known: it was about 600. The census of 1890 shows 727 jail prisoners. The increase in the number of prisoners in jails is small, relatively, to the growth of the total population of the State, which in 1870 was 2,539,891; but in 1890 it was 3,826,351.

Since 1872 twenty-nine counties have erected new jails.

Chicago House of Correction.— The average number of prisoners in the Chicago House of Correction in 1872 was 420; in 1892 it was 1,005; the number present Dec. 31, 1892, was 1,137.

Almshouses.— The number of paupers returned in the census of 1870 was 2,363: the actual number was probably a little less, since the returns may be presumed to have included some outdoor paupers. The number in 1872 is estimated at 2,300. The census of 1890 shows 5,395, or an increase of about 120 per cent.; while the increase in the population of the State has been less than 50 per cent.

Since 1872 twenty-seven counties have erected new almshouses, and thirty-two counties have erected additions to their almshouses.

Private Charitable Institutions.— There are no statistics of the number of inmates of private charitable institutions in 1870 or 1872. The number reported in the census of 1890 was nearly 6,500.

Conclusion.— At the present time there are in the charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions of Illinois, in round numbers, 27,000 inmates, of whom 5,200 are prisoners, 21,800 are beneficiaries, 20,000 are maintained at public expense, and 7,000 by private charity. The annual expense of their maintenance is estimated at $3,500,000.

Creation of New State Institutions.— The General Assembly has created four new State institutions. The Southern Hospital for the

Insane at Anna, created in 1869, was not opened until 1873. In 1877 the Eastern Hospital for the Insane at Kankakee was created, in 1877 also the Southern Penitentiary at Chester, in 1885 the Soldiers' and Sailors' Home at Quincy, in 1889 the Asylum for Insane Criminals at Chester. In 1891 the State Reform School at Pontiac was reorganized, and the title changed to the State Reformatory. It now includes a department for adult first offenders.

History of Legislation.— The principal acts affecting the State institutions have been as follows: —

In 1875 the General Assembly adopted the so-called "regulating act," which is virtually a constitution for the institutions named in the act, which places them all under a uniform system of management, government, and accountability. This act merits examination and imitation by other States. It has operated in all respects to the satisfaction of the people of Illinois, and has required no amendment.

In 1881 the system of districts for the several insane hospitals of the State was adopted.

In 1883 cumulative penalties for habitual criminals were incorporated into the criminal code.

In 1885 an amendment to the State constitution was voted at the general election in that year, prohibiting contract convict labor in all prisons and reformatory institutions of Illinois.

In 1889 the introduction of the Bertillon system of identification and registration of convicts in prisons for felonies was authorized.

In 1891 the legislature accepted the principle of the mark system, progressive classification, and the indeterminate system for the new State Reformatory at Pontiac.

In 1879 private industrial schools for girls were authorized to receive recognition by the governor, and thereafter commitments to such schools might be made by the county courts.

In 1883 a similar act was passed in aid of industrial schools for boys.

Special Mention.— Illinois is believed to be the only State in the Union which owns and maintains a charitable eye and ear infirmary.

The features of the charitable system of the State worthy of special mention here are: (1) the method of settling and publishing the accounts of all the institutions quarterly; (2) the initiation of

the detached ward or village plan of caring for the insane at Kankakee, which has been approved and imitated by several States.

The State constitution forbids State aid to private charities.

INDIANA.

Government and Supervision of Charitable and Penal Institutions.

1. *State's Prisons.*— General control, none. The Board of State Charities has general powers of supervision and advice. It may call for such reports and statistics as it requires, and prescribe such forms of report and registration as it may deem essential; but it has no executive functions. The Board receives and publishes quarterly reports of the financial transactions and the movement of population of the prisons.

Specific Control.— Vested in a board of three directors for each prison, who are appointed by the governor. The directors appoint the warden, physician, and moral instructor. They inspect the warden's accounts, hear and investigate complaints of prisoners, give the warden such instruction and counsel as they think necessary, and make contracts for the employment of the convicts. The warden appoints all subordinate officers except as above specified, his appointments being subject to the confirmation of the directors. He is the executive officer of the prison, and has charge of all its operations. He makes all contracts for supplies, and the funds of the prison are in his custody. He is appointed by the directors for a term of four years, and cannot be removed except for cause.

2. *Workhouses, County Jails, and Almshouses* (called asylums for the poor).— General control, none. The Board of State Charities has general powers of inspection and supervision, but no executive functions. The Board receives quarterly reports from the poor asylums of the name and condition of each inmate admitted and of those who die, leave, or are discharged. Specific control of workhouses by superintendents appointed by the boards of county commissioners, who act as boards of trustees for the workhouses. Specific control of jails by the sheriffs of counties, who are elected

by the people. The sheriffs appoint such jailers and turnkeys as they think proper, and have complete control of the jail. Specific control of poor asylums by superintendents appointed by the boards of county commissioners, who act as boards of trustees for the asylums.

3. *Hospitals for the Insane.*— General control, none. The Board of State Charities has general powers of visitation, supervision, and advice. It receives monthly reports, by name and condition, of all patients received and dismissed, and quarterly reports of the financial transactions of the hospitals. Its functions are purely those of inspection: it has no executive duties. Specific control vested in a board of three trustees, appointed by the governor for each hospital. The trustees appoint a medical superintendent: they are responsible for the purchase of supplies, which are procured under competitive bids. They may remove any subordinate officer at pleasure. The medical superintendent is appointed for a term of four years, subject to removal by the trustees, but only for cause. He is the chief executive officer of the hospital. He appoints all subordinates, and may discharge subordinates at pleasure.

4. *Reformatories for Juvenile Offenders.*— General control, none. The Board of State Charities has general power of inspection, advice, and report, but has no executive functions. It receives and publishes quarterly reports of the financial transactions, and of the movement of the population of the reformatories. Specific control in boards of trustees appointed by the governor. The trustees appoint the superintendent, audit his accounts, and have general control over the institution. The superintendent is the chief executive officer, appoints and removes all subordinates.

5. *Reformatories for Adult Offenders.*— None.

6. *Private Charitable Institutions.*— No general control. The Board of State Charities visits and inspects those which receive partial support from public funds. Specific control varies, mostly by boards of trustees chosen by the subscribers under general incorporation acts.

7. *Support of Institutions.*— Prisons, reformatories, and hospitals for insane are supported by legislative appropriations except as follows: The State prisons: the product of contract labor equals or exceeds the cost of their support, so that the State treasury is reimbursed for the amounts paid out. The hospitals for the in-

sane: clothing and travelling expenses of the patients are paid by their friends, or, failing that, these amounts are collected by the State from the counties from which the patients are sent. The Reformatories: one-half of the estimated maintenance cost of the inmates is collected from the counties pro rata of the number sent from each.

Workhouses, county jails, and poor asylums are supported by county taxation. Private charitable institutions supported from endowments, popular subscriptions, and in some cases by specific sums appropriated by county or municipal boards or payments at a weekly rate for each inmate sent to them.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER STATE CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost of the institution to Oct. 31, 1892 (land, buildings, equipment).	Operating expenses of institutions for the fiscal year ending Oct. 31, 1892.	Total number of days' board of inmates during fiscal year ending Oct. 31, 1892.
State Prison, South,	Jeffersonville,	$250,000.00	$69,417.09	216,946
State Prison, North,	Michigan City,	703,500.00	100,000.00	290,329
Central Hospital for Insane,	Indianapolis,	1,500,588.09	278,207.04	518,988
Northern Hospital for Insane,	Logansport,	404,276.00	84,999.95	144,204
Eastern Hospital for Insane,	Richmond,	492,660.00	84,932.10	143,143
Southern Hospital for Insane,	Evansville,	482,912.96	78,111.04	131,760
Institution for Feeble-minded Youth,	Fort Wayne,	257,297.81	81,620 92	150,792
Reform School for Boys,	Plainfield,	208,000.00	70,200.62	170,922
Reform School for Girls and Woman's Prison,	Indianapolis,	175,000.00	40,000.00	67,710
Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home,	Knightstown,	221,666.85	94,999.65	200,062
Institution for Deaf and Dumb,	Indianapolis,	263,786.15	62,153.21	79,605
Institution for the Blind,	Indianapolis,	163,472.69	29,126.50	35,410
Total,		$5,123,166.55	$1,073,768.12	2,149,871

IOWA.

BY MISS M. E. STARR.

It is a matter for deep regret that the State of Iowa has no official representative to send to such a conference as this. With an intelligent and progressive population, exceeding 2,000,000 in number, and in a period of rapidly increasing wealth and great prosperity, the

State has made no provision for a tribunal or authority for collecting the facts concerning its dependent and criminal classes, and for suggesting measures and methods of reform and economy in their supervision and treatment. All the facts here presented have been gathered by unpaid volunteer effort.

Defective and Dependent Classes.—There are about 4,600 insane persons in the State, or 1 insane to every 434 inhabitants. Of these, 2,153 are reported as being in the three State insane asylums, and 2,500 scattered throughout the State.

Probably 800 of these latter, classed as incurable, are kept in county asylums, or are a feature of county poor-farms. From 1,500 to 1,800 are in the homes of the people.

Counting those only officially noted as being in State asylums, there were 501 in 1870, 954 in 1880, 1,921 in 1890, and 2,153 at the close of 1892: that is, in 1870, 1 person out of 2,300 was an inmate of an insane hospital; in 1880, 1 in 1,700; and, in 1890, 1 in 1,000. In other words, the proportion has more than doubled within twenty years.

From December, 1890, to December, 1892, the increase was 232, or 12 per cent., while the increase of population was probably not over 6 per cent.

Part of the increase is said to be due to increased facilities in the new asylum at Clarinda; but the indications of increasing insanity are worthy of serious attention. All the hospitals are crowded, and a fourth is needed. The average cost of maintenance of inmates per capita is about $13.50 per month.

In 1876 was established a State institution for the feeble-minded which now has over 450 inmates, and is overcrowded. It admits only persons between five and eighteen years old. All these institutions are on the congregate plan. Mechanical restraint of insane patients is not generally in use,—is said to be rarely used.

In 1892 was opened an Industrial Home for the Adult Blind, where they may earn a livelihood. It has about 50 inmates. There is also, in Davenport, a very successful home for indigent children and the orphans of soldiers, supported by the State and conducted on the cottage plan.

In recent years a number of private institutions have been established in different parts of the State, including a Benedict Home, admitting 25 persons at a time; three homes for the friendless, at

Davenport, Cedar Rapids, and Des Moines, respectively; a Swedish Orphan's Home, with 29 inmates; and 14 hospitals in 11 cities and towns of the State.

Paupers and Pauperism.— No reliable information seems more difficult to obtain than that relating to the extent and cost of pauperism. The census reported population of almshouses in Iowa in 1870 as 1,543, or 1 to every 760 inhabitants, and in 1890 reported the "number of paupers in the State" as 1,621, or 1 to each 1,200 people. Whether the report was on the same thing in 1890 as in 1870, it is impossible to say.

There were in the State on Dec. 31, 1892, over 2,200 almshouse paupers, or 1 in 1,100; and the cost of indoor relief is estimated at from $180,000 to $250,000 per annum. Many almshouses are farms, and it is impossible to say whether the figures given include sales of products or not. It is estimated that in 1892 nearly 8,000 persons or heads of families received outdoor relief with more or less regularity, or 1 in 250 of the population, and at an estimated expense of $50 each, or $400,000 in the aggregate.

In one county (Des Moines), with a population of 36,000, 180 persons, and chiefly heads of families, receive outdoor relief,— 110 continuous, and 71 temporary, at an expenditure of $9,800, or estimated at $50 per head. Outdoor relief, hurtful as it is believed to be in many of its features and tendencies, costs in Iowa probably $2 for every $1 that is expended for the poor indoors, including poorhouses and poor-farms, hospital service, and the care of the incurably insane in poorhouses; but, strange to relate, there is no active recognition of this as an evil, and no general or organized effort to correct it.

There is a Charity Organization Society in existence and in more or less active operation in each of the towns of Burlington, Davenport, Grinnell, and Marshalltown. The following are extracts from replies recently received from overseers of the poor of eleven different counties in the State as to the influence of outdoor relief upon the recipients: "The effect as to habits of industry is not good." "When they find the county willing to keep them, they generally depend on the county instead of their own efforts." "Outdoor relief is an injury." "Paupers, as a rule, grow more expensive in their habits the longer they are helped." "It encourages idleness and a disposition to depend on the public." "It is detrimental to

habits of industry and frugality." "When persons give up and ask for county relief, they generally relinquish effort to make a living for themselves." "The effect of outdoor relief is bad." "Character of recipients, as a general rule, shiftless." "Nearly all finally reach one level as the result of aid." "The effect is shiftlessness and indolence." "Induces lack of interest in self-support."

Crime and Criminals.— On June 1, 1880, there were 546 prisoners in the two State penitentiaries, or 1 in 3,000 inhabitants; on the same day in June, 1890, 623, or in the same ratio; and on Dec. 31, 1892, 705, or about 1 in 2,800. The number of persons confined in the jails of the State on a single day (Dec. 31, 1892) is estimated at 464. In the census of 1880 the first day of June is selected; and the number given is 255, and June 1, 1890, as 327. The proportion in jails in December will doubtless always be larger than in June; and statistics afford little basis of comparison if taken in this way for different periods.

In the line of reform of juvenile criminals we have an efficient Industrial School for Boys and Girls, with about 500 inmates.

Many well-informed persons — police officers and others — assert that crimes against the person and against property are sensibly on the increase, especially in the larger towns and cities. This tendency they attribute to the increasing number of young men growing up with the idea that somehow the world owes them a living without work, to the drift of this class into the larger towns, and to the demoralized state of the public mind in the cities regarding the general restraints of law, consequent upon the so-called saloon or liquor question.

For about nine years a most stringent prohibitory liquor law has been upon the statute books in Iowa. Its enforcement is confided to local officers elected by the people; and it is safe to assert that in those communities where public opinion is hostile to the law it is not enforced. Entering into politics, as the subject has inevitably donè, reference even to the facts has become a delicate matter. But it is in many respects the greatest social problem now before the people of the State; and, while absolutely disclaiming a purpose to express or to influence the views of any one as to the wisdom or unwisdom of legal prohibition, the following facts are given: —

Since July 1, 1892,— that is, within the past eleven months,— 5,846

retail liquor licenses have been issued to persons in Iowa by the United States government, through its two revenue offices at Burlington and Dubuque. Some of these licenses have lapsed, and many are for drug-stores legitimately conducted. But, as against these, are the secret "joints" which have no government license; and it is undoubtedly true that the licenses are mainly in force, and represent open saloons in the cities and towns.

In one city, having by the census of 1890 over 22,000 inhabitants, 175 government licenses have been during this year issued to persons as retail liquor-dealers. At the present time there are in that city 108 open saloons, or 1 to every 200 inhabitants; and, if these average five to a family, there is a saloon for every forty families.

In another city, with a population of over 25,000, there were 306 such licenses issued in the same period; and there are 216 open saloons, being a saloon to every 124 of the population, and one to every twenty-five families. At the last presidential election there were cast in that city 6,378 votes, and there was a saloon to every twenty-nine voters.

These instances, and many others that can be cited, indicate that at least 60 per cent. of the 5,846 retail liquor licenses issued are now in force and represented by open saloons, or places of public resort for liquor-drinking, which means more than 3,500 in the State. Few of these are in the country; and there are many towns in which there is not an open saloon, so that the ratio of saloons to people has regard only to the population of cities and towns.

By the census of 1890 the town population was 707,394, and the number of families 141,479. Assuming that we number 2,000,000 at the present time, there are 148,000 families in the urban population of the State.

If the proportion of drinking-places to families, above indicated, is taken as correct, the State of Iowa to-day virtually contains an average of one drinking saloon to every forty-one families in the communities where saloons exist. In the solution of this problem is involved the solution of many others.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER STATE CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost of institutions to Dec. 31, 1892.	Operating expenses for last fiscal year ending before Jan. 1, 1893.	Number of days' board to inmates during same period.
Hospital for Insane, ...	Mt. Pleasant,	$3,891,954.30	$151,386.90	308,630
Hospital for Insane, ...	Independence,	1,009,630.00	131,411.34	308,790
Hospital for Insane, ...	Clarinda,	—	77,602.81	—
Industrial Home for Adult Blind, . .	Knoxville,	50,269.76	7,034.49	9,124
Institution for Feeble-minded, ...	Glenwood,	911,315.00	34,846.28	160,940
Iowa State Penitentiary, ...	Fort Madison,	—	67,315.24	481,754
Iowa Industrial School for Boys, . . . Iowa Industrial School for Girls, . . .	Eldora, Mitchellville,	960,635.00	41,780.00	141,840
Soldiers' Orphans' Home and Home for Indigent Children, ...	Davenport,	140,170.00	48,841.17	149,564

KANSAS.

BY HON. FRANK H. BETTON.

Twenty-five years practically cover the entire history of the charitable and penal institutions of Kansas. Our State is not yet thirty-three years old, and the domestic revolution which marked her birth had to be fought out before she found time to systematically control her vicious or properly provide for her dependent people.

In 1866 the legislature asked for bids to build a penitentiary. A School for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb had been established at Olathe, and several small sums had been given it by previous legislatures. This year (1866) it was first formally recognized as a State institution, and $4,000 was appropriated for the maintenance of pupils, and $1,000 for rent of building, which the State purchased the next year. It was of rough stone, 40 × 60 feet, two stories and basement. This structure, with the aid of numerous additions, served for twenty years. In 1886 it was torn down to make room for the present building. Starting with a dozen children, the school

has developed until it ranks eighth in size among the eighty schools of similar character in the United States, employs 17 teachers, provides practical education in nine of the most useful handicraft-trades, and bears on its rolls the names of 262 pupils.

In 1866 $3,000 was appropriated for the care of the insane at Osawatomie. In 1868 provision was made for 12 officers and employes. The total appropriation for salaries and for maintenance of patients was for this year $7,800. At the recent session of the legislature $238,200 was appropriated for the next two fiscal years. Officers and attendants, 108; patients, 706. $75,000 has just been paid for additional buildings. The second State Insane Asylum was commenced on a 180-acre tract in the suburbs of Topeka, in 1875. The Buffalo plan was adopted for the main building. The grounds are tastefully laid out. There are 125 officers and employees, and 748 patients. Appropriation for maintenance for next two fiscal years, $221,528. These two asylums care jointly for 1,454 patients, and many are cared for by counties for lack of room. The State reimburses counties for such care. The location of a third asylum in the western part of the State is being agitated.

In 1868 the legislature appropriated $3,000 for the payment of teachers, servants, waiters, and medical attendance at the blind school, provided that no part of this sum shall be expended until ten blind children apply for admittance.

The school was located at Wyandotte,— now Kansas City,— on a ten acre plot given by the city. This tract has been very tastefully laid out. The buildings are substantial and well equipped. Number of teachers and employees, 30; pupils, 80. Industries adapted to the capacity of the blind, such as broom-making, etc., are prosecuted.

The State Reform School for Boys was created by the legislature of 1879, and located near Topeka, on a quarter section of land. The first appropriation was $35,000. A double cottage built of brick and stone was erected, and occupied about June 1, 1881. Boys under sixteen, guilty of any offence punishable by imprisonment, are admitted, also unruly boys with the consent of parents, and in some cases without such consent. They may be apprenticed, but are subject to the institution until they are twenty-one, unless discharged as reformed on recommendation of the superintendent. For the first two years the average number of boys in the institution was 76, ranging from nine to fifteen years, and committed for a variety of

causes, chiefly incorrigibility, although four were guilty of horse-stealing, and two of forgery. 503 boys were discharged prior to July 1, 1892. Of this number, 70 per cent. are known to be doing well, of 16 per cent. no information has been obtained, while the remaining 14 per cent. have returned to a criminal life. The boys work four and one-half hours during each school day, and attend school four and one-half hours. The work is as yet mainly agricultural, but the superintendent recommends training in the industrial trades.

The farm has been fairly well developed, largely through the labor of the boys. The original double cottage is supplemented with a series of spacious and well-constructed buildings. The officers and employees number 32, and the boys 220.

The Institution for the Education of Feeble-minded Children was established by the legislature of 1881. It was at Lawrence until 1887, with a capacity for only 35 children, and $7,500 was annually appropriated for its maintenance. It was removed to Winfield in 1887, where buildings were erected capable of providing for 100 children. This institution has been crowded for the last five years; and children of this class unable to gain admission have, in many instances, been forced into the poorhouses. Only forty acres of land are occupied; and the trustees advise an increased area, that adult idiots should continue to find a home here, and the inmates be encouraged to perform manual labor. The superintendent says some are becoming interested in their studies, and nearly all delight in physical exercise. He also urges the need of shops, that mechanical skill may be developed. There are 100 pupils and 23 officers and employees.

The Soldiers' Orphans' Home, located at Atchison, was opened July 1, 1887. The law governing the institution closely follows the law of Michigan. Soldiers' children have preference in order of admission. 250 children have been received since the opening, of which number 130 remain. The site consists of 160 acres. The buildings cost $41,000. For the last biennial period the annual per capita cost of maintenance has been $155.32.

The State Industrial School for Girls was created by the legislature of 1889, and established at Beloit. $25,000 was appropriated for the erection of buildings. The Women's Christian Temperance Union instigated its organization. The laws governing admission are similar to those for the Reform School for Boys. On Dec. 31,

1892, there were 101 girls in this school, from eight to sixteen years of age. The girls are carefully instructed in needle and house work, and perform much of the labor needed about the grounds and in the garden. There are 12 officers and employees. Last appropriation, including new buildings, about $50,000.

A State Home for old soldiers was established in 1891 at the old Fort Dodge military reservation. It is on the cottage plan, where the veteran can reside with his family. A number of cottages have been erected. There are 153 male and 133 female residents. The legislative appropriations for the next two fiscal years aggregate $56,400.

There are several *homes* and hospitals in the State not under State control, but which have, in most instances, received small legislative appropriations.

The first effort looking to the establishment of a penitentiary was made in 1866. On July 1, 1892, there were 942 prisoners. An average of 300 work in the coal mine, the shaft, 733 feet deep, being inside the prison walls. 165 are employed by contractors on harness, shoes, and furniture. The State receives 66 cents per day for their labor. The rest find employment in the general work of the prison. A deduction of 3 days per month for the first year, 6 days for the second year, and 8 days for the remainder of sentence is allowed for good behavior; and the prisoner is credited with $3\frac{3}{4}$ cents per day as wages. Clothing to the value of $10, and $10 in money, are given each discharged prisoner. The operating expenses of the prison for the last fiscal year were $149,839.95.

The legislature of 1885 provided for the establishment of a reformatory for juvenile criminals between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five, not known to have been previously sentenced. The discipline contemplated was reformatory. Agricultural and mechanical pursuits were to be followed. The buildings have been erected at Hutchinson at a cost of $260,000, but they have not yet been occupied.

The total cost of the State penal and charitable institutions has been $3,382,488. Operating expenses for the last fiscal year, $460,443.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER STATE CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost to June 30, 1892.	Operating expenses year ending June 30, 1892.	Total days' board year ending June 30, 1892.
Penitentiary,	Lansing,	$1,678,500	$108,100	$329,084
Industrial Reformatory,	Hutchinson,	260,000		
Reform School for Boys,	Topeka,	175,000	31,400	78,324
Industrial School for Girls,	Beloit,	35,000	12,800	28,548
Asylum for Idiotic and Imbecile Youths,	Winfield,	75,000	17,400	36,966
Education of Deaf and Dumb,	Olathe,	250,000	38,500	83,448
Education of Blind,	Kansas City,	150,000	17,600	28,914
Soldiers' Orphans' Home,	Atchison,	41,000	19,900	43,188
Insane Asylum,	Topeka,	325,000	115,600	274,500
Insane Asylum,	Osawatomie,	375,000	74,600	185,196
Soldiers' Home,	Dodge City,	18,000	24,500	104,390
		$3,382,500	$460,400	$1,192,558

MAINE.

BY MRS. L. M. N. STEVENS.

The State of Maine is largely made up of rural districts and thrifty villages, and has no very large cities. Portland, the largest city, has less than 40,000 inhabitants. Maine's increase in population is slow, but steady. Its foreign population is comparatively small: hence there is not the demand for charitable and correctional work which may be found in States differently made up. However, there have come within the last twenty years many changes, in order to keep up with the times; and, certainly, Maine tries to be true to her motto, "I lead."

The method of caring for dependent children has greatly improved within the last twenty years. Several excellent institutions, which did not then exist, are helping in this work, notably,—Good Will Farm for boys, Golden Rule, Prospect, Bailey, and Fogg Cottages, each having a family of fifteen. The plan calls for many more cottages. Work on the farm and in the cottages is done mostly by the boys. There is also an industrial building used for educational purposes and

manual training. Boys are received from anywhere, without regard to religious preferences of parents or friends. They are not required to wear uniforms. All characteristics of institutional life are avoided as far as possible, in order to maintain a quiet home life, which will fit the inmates to be home-builders and home-lovers.

Another institution which did not exist twenty years ago is our Industrial School for Girls, which is for girls what "Good Will" is for boys.

Another comparatively new institution is the Temporary Home for women and children, situated near Portland, which receives women and children from any part of Maine who are not eligible to any other institution. It is on the plan "Whatever woman will, may come and find a home"; and any little child who has no home may here have a safe and pleasant one until permanently provided for. The Catholics care well for their children in their institutions, and the needy children and grandchildren of soldiers and sailors of our Civil War are excellently provided for in the Bath Military and Naval Asylum. Homes for the aged have multiplied in number of late, and are of the most approved plan.

The deaf-mutes are provided for in an excellent school situated in Portland. The feeble-minded are, by State provision, cared for in the Massachusetts Institution for Feeble-minded. The blind are likewise provided for in out-of-State institutions. In the almshouses are not so many inmates as twenty years ago, because the poor are "helped to help themselves," as they were not at that time. In the insane asylum there are one-third more than there were twenty years ago. This does not necessarily mean that there are more insane people in Maine than there were at that time, but rather that they are cared for in the asylum, and not so much in the almshouses as formerly. During the last ten years nearly one-half of the Maine Insane Asylum has been constructed. Many improvements have been made. Mechanical restraints are used only by direction of a medical officer, and the management aim to reduce it to a minimum.

There are now twenty-nine less in our Maine State prison than there were twenty years ago. In regard to homicides, our prison record shows in 1872, murder, 2; manslaughter, 1; in 1892, murder, 1; manslaughter, 2: hence there is evident improvement in changing places of murder for manslaughter. I think we can safely claim that Maine's proportion of criminals is small compared with other States.

The Associated Charities of Portland do a great work, as do also the Provident Association, the Samaritans, Fresh Air Society, Widow's Wood Society, Little Women, etc. The Woman's Christian Temperance Union, whose banner is set up in nearly every town in the State, aims to bring together the homeless child and the childless home, believing that, while institutions are necessary and good, it is even better to place a child in a real home by adoption, where he can have a father and a mother to love and to love him as their very own.

I greatly deplore that Maine has no State Board of Charities and Correction.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER STATE CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost of institutions to Nov. 30, 1892.	Operating expenses of institution for fiscal year ending Nov. 30, 1892.	Total number of days' board to inmates during fiscal year ending Nov. 30, 1892.
State Prison, ...	Thomaston,	$350,000	$22,524.11	55,750
Insane Hospital, ...	Augusta,	850,000	160,131.71	250,710
Reform School for Boys, ...	Cape Elizabeth,	145,700	20,936.99	34,194
Industrial School for Girls, ...	Hallowell,	38,072	9,311.08	22,630
Bath Military and Naval Asylum, . .	Bath,	12,000	8,561.41	19,245
Totals, ...		$1,395,772	$221,465.30	382,529

PROVINCE OF MANITOBA.

BY JOHN W. SIFTON.

The Province of Manitoba has a population of 175,000, about one-half of whom are living in the towns and cities. There are public institutions in the Province, as follows: Two lunatic asylums, in which are now confined 150 inmates. The expenses of maintenance of these institutions are paid out of the funds of the Province. The staff consists (in each institution) of a medical superintendent,

bursar, matron, and male and female guards. The institutions are managed and controlled by the Provincial Government, and are regularly visited and inspected by an official appointed for that purpose.

A Home for Incurables. The staff of this institution consists of a superintendent, medical attendant, matron, and regular staff of attendants.

A Deaf and Dumb Institute, which has at present about 40 pupils. The staff consists of a principal, matron, and four teachers.

Four jails: one in the city of Winnipeg, in which are confined at present 30 prisoners; one at Portage La Prairie, where there are 4 prisoners; and one at Brandon, which has 5 prisoners. The other jail is situated in a district where no liquor licenses are granted, and has no prisoners. It is therefore closed so far as the purpose of a jail is concerned.

There are four hospitals in the Province, in which there are at present 150 patients. These are managed by a board of directors, who are elected annually by the corporation. The corporations are formed by act of Parliament, and powers are defined by said act. The government hold general supervision over these institutions, which are regularly visited and inspected by the government inspector, when, if the statutes have been found to have been complied with, an annual grant is made them of thirty-seven and one-half cents per day per patient, while in the hospital under treatment. In most cases, the government gives grants to assist in the building of hospitals, but the building and maintenance are largely supplied by private subscription.

There is one Woman's Home in the Province, which is managed by a board of ladies. A small grant is given to this institution by the government, but the main support comes from the benevolent. The number of inmates of this institution has never amounted to more than twenty, and is seldom more than ten.

There are also two children's homes in the Province, one Protestant, and the other Roman Catholic. The Protestant institution is managed by a board of ladies from the various Protestant churches, and the Roman Catholic institution is controlled by the Sisters of Charity of that church. An annual grant is made to each of these homes by the government.

Schools are kept by the different denominations for the teaching of Indian children.

There is one penitentiary in the Province; which is controlled by the federal government; and the expenses of the same are paid from the consolidated fund of the Dominion. At present there are 32 inmates in this prison from the Province.

This is a very young Province: and all the institutions above referred to have sprung into existence within twenty years, except one prison and the penitentiary.

Taking ten years as a comparison, the general morality of the Province has vastly improved.

MARYLAND.

BY JEFFREY R. BRACKETT.

Population, 1870, 780,894; 1890, 1,042,390. Over one-quarter of the population of Maryland is colored.

In Maryland, twenty years ago, the means of dealing with paupers and prisoners were simple, and the institutions for them were few. For the pauper the city of Baltimore and each county had an almshouse, save three counties which gave only outdoor relief in pensions, varying from ten to sixty dollars a year. The imbecile went to the almshouse: the insane went either there or to the State asylum at county expense. For all classes and conditions of prisoners the only public institutions were the local jails or the State penitentiary. But private philanthropy, aided by the public purse, had established at Baltimore a House of Refuge, which for twenty years already has taken large numbers of boys, and a House of Refuge for Girls, holding about a score. Besides these there were a large industrial school for incorrigible boys, and a House of the Good Shepherd, and a Shelter, for fallen women.

In other ways besides the establishment of such private institutions, the influences of a large, progressive community were shown in Baltimore. The city jail and the State penitentiary had been, as a rule, well-managed institutions. In the welfare of prisoners and of inmates of the almshouse, especially in their religious instruction, a number of individuals had for years taken much interest; and the Maryland Prisoners' Aid Association was just beginning work. To

the great improvement of the penitentiary, the legislature had just appropriated $30,000, especially for introducing the means of working all able-bodied convicts. This system has been kept, despite labor agitators, with the result that the prison has usually more than paid its expenses, while the convicts have learned the habit of work and the means, when discharged, of an honorable self-support.

Whether these means for treating paupers and prisoners were properly used depended, notably in the counties, on trustees of poor, grand juries, and other officials, all local. Inspections were usually the formal and expected visits, often turned into mere entertainment. But in 1870, officials of the Prisoners' Aid Association, empowered by law to inspect all prisons, began yearly visits to the county jails, and also to the almshouses, and to point out defects and needs both to the county officials and the public. In 1874 the State Board of Health was established, charged, besides other duties, to visit and report on all public institutions, whenever called upon so to do by the governor or legislature. Called on two years later by the governor, their secretary, a physician, made an elaborate inspection and report; and again in 1880 and 1883 inspections were ordered. In 1886 the State Lunacy Commissioner was established, charged with the oversight of all institutions, public or private, taking insane persons, including almshouses, to prevent wrongful confinement or ill-use. They must visit at least once in every six months, and report to the governor yearly.

There is no further supervision of the charities and corrections of Maryland. An effort was begun, a few years ago, in Baltimore to secure a State commission for that purpose; but it was soon abandoned from the fear that the board would be made up with too great regard for politics and place. One county, Frederick, has established a local Board of Charities and Correction.

When the county institutions were first inspected by these experienced eyes, two-thirds of the jails were found unfit for use (four of them had been condemned already by local grand juries); and there was generally little separation of the sexes, or of young and old, either in age or crime. In the almshouses, as a rule, young and old, sane and insane, mingled together. One-half of the almshouses were so inadequate for the needs or so wretchedly managed as to have children born in them, frequently to imbecile mothers. In a few scattered cases, insane persons were treated like brutes.

"It is painful," they said, "to report the shocking condition in which many of the public institutions were found, and it is difficult to conceive that anything worse ever existed in a civilized country." By 1880, however, they could state that the almshouses, with few exceptions, had greatly improved. A number of new jails and almshouses have been built, and the old abuses have been largely done away in the past fifteen years. Twenty-one of the twenty-three counties report nearly 2,600 persons receiving pensions, at a total cost of nearly $45,000 a year. Three counties still have no almshouses, pensioning out or maintaining elsewhere their poor. The Prisoners' Aid Association and the Health Board have advocated, but in vain, a system of union workhouses,—one workhouse for a district of several thinly peopled counties, which now keep their few poor indifferently, often in idleness, and at a greater cost than would keep the same in an intelligently managed and truly beneficial institution.

The Health Board, in 1877, reported some 100 children in the almshouses. A small home, established in Easton in 1871, had taken a few girls from the almshouse. At Cumberland in Washington County the evils of child-life in almshouses, noted by grand juries and agitated at a public meeting, led to the establishment in 1883 of a Home for Friendless Children. It is supported in part by the county and part by contributions and the interest of an endowment fund. Within ten years 174 children have been received and taught, and 123 placed out and supervised in families. In 1886 the State forbade the keeping of able-bodied children in almshouses between three and sixteen years; and this law has been reasonably executed.

The Lunacy Commission has urged the removal of as many insane paupers as possible to the State and the Mt. Hope Hospitals near Baltimore. Two counties have for some years maintained hospitals for insane, under separate management from their almshouses. Another county, in 1892, erected a separate building, attached to the almshouse, and removed seven patients to it from the State asylum. The commissioners of Baltimore County (adjoining the city) recently planned to erect an insane hospital, to save money to the county in the care of its sixty or more insane; but the protests of the Lunacy Commission and of public opinion stopped them. The insane department of Baltimore City almshouse has been enlarged and put

under good management, but is again becoming very crowded. Two years ago a special and able committee of inquiry recommended to the legislature two measures,—one for the State to assume the care of all pauper insane, the other for a home for epileptics. A bill for the first object was passed, but was not signed by the governor. The second object was not favorably reported. Public interest in both, however, seems to be growing; and their realization may be expected. The census of 1870 gave the number of insane persons in Maryland as 1,646, of feeble-minded as 1,549.* Population of insane hospitals, June 30, 1892, 1,144, besides nearly 400 at Baltimore city almshouse insane department, and over 350 insane in the county almshouses.

In 1888 the State appropriated $10,000 to establish an asylum and training school for the feeble-minded. It was opened the next year, with an annual appropriation of $5,000, now $6,000. It had 1892 (June 30) 37 inmates.† The Maryland School for the Blind had been opened in 1854; and in 1872 the State appropriated $20,000 for a school for colored blind and deaf, and has been since its chief support. The census of 1890 gave 819 blind in all, and 752 deaf-mutes.‡ The State has long maintained a large asylum for deaf-mutes at Frederick. A hospital for inebriates was opened under private management about 1866, but closed after ten years' existence, when the State withdrew its customary appropriation. The law still allows inebriates to be committed after due examination to hospitals, as Mt. Hope, which will receive them.

The need of a House of Correction had been long urged, and in 1874 the State appropriated $250,000 for one. It was opened in 1879, and had an average of 170 inmates that year. Meantime, to keep large numbers of colored children guilty of petty offences out of the jails or the penitentiary, the sum of $30,000 was raised by private subscription, under the influence of the Prisoners' Aid Association; and the House of Reformation for Colored Boys was opened in 1873, with an annual grant of $5,000 (now $10,000) from the State. Again, by the interest of the same association and with a

* The census of 1870 gave 733 insane and 362 idiotic. These figures may be questioned. The Health Board reported, in 1883, 1,800 insane and 1,319 idiotics. There are several private homes for insane.

† There are several private homes for the feeble-minded.

‡ The census of 1870, 427 blind and 384 deaf-mutes.

similar grant from the State, an Industrial Home for Colored Girls was established in 1882.

In 1875 an entire change in the system of magistracy in Baltimore City cut down the score or more of committing justices paid by fees to six paid by salary, and the next years showed a decrease in the number of commitments to the jail. The fee system has since been abolished in Frederick County, with great saving to the public. In 1876 the legislature enacted a system of commutation, by which terms of imprisonment might be shortened for good behavior. In 1878 a bill was passed for the protection of children against immorality; and a society was soon formed to see that children suffering from cruelty or immorality were put, accordingly, in the proper institutions or otherwise cared for. About that time also the more systematic employment of prisoners in the jail was carried out, the laws requiring commitment to labor having been largely a dead letter. In 1883 the offence of wilful wife-beating was made punishable in Baltimore by the cowhide,—a most effectual preventive measure, if the absence of offenders be due to that law.* In 1884 the Baltimore Police Board was authorized to appoint matrons to serve at the station-houses. One was soon put at the central station; but not till recently, after some agitation, was a matron secured by night and day for each of the stations. In the House of Refuge and St. Mary's Industrial School for Boys industrial training and drill have been introduced.†

Of private charitable institutions there are few outside of Baltimore, and these are small.‡ In Baltimore the growth in medical Charities has been marked in twenty years, the old hospitals having, as a rule, been enlarged, and several new ones established, notably the great Johns Hopkins Hospital, with its 182 free beds. The

* One man, a white, was whipped soon after the law was enacted.

† It is interesting to note that by an act of 1853 the medical dispensaries were partly supported by the fines levied yearly on houses of ill-fame. The last Assembly repealed this law and any implied legislative sanction to the custom in Baltimore of licensing, practically, all such houses which were quietly conducted.

‡ Mention has been made of the Home for Friendless Children of the Eastern Shore at Easton, Talbot County, opened in 1871, and of the Washington County Orphanage at Hagerstown, opened in 1883, with about 20 inmates each. A Female Orphan Society was formed in Annapolis in 1828, and now cares for 4 girls. At Frederick there are two orphanages, one under the Episcopal society, the other under the Lutheran, with about 12 children each, and a Home for the Aged recently opened with 3 inmates. The Protestant Home and Infirmary of Western Maryland at Cumberland, incorporated 1888, has recently moved into a new building, with 22 beds, partly free.

city maintains 250 free beds at eight general hospitals, besides the hospital at the almshouse. Besides, the State, in appropriating to several of the hospitals, provides that a certain number of beds shall be free. The influence of the Johns Hopkins Training School for nurses has been plainly seen in better nursing in the hospitals. A beginning in district nursing among the poor is now being made. The old dispensaries of Baltimore have not progressed. Of the new, Johns Hopkins Dispensary has taken a great step in the right direction by asking a fee of ten cents from all who can afford it, and in 1891 about 80 per cent. paid. An evening dispensary has been established, with female doctors for women and girls who cannot leave work in the day. And one devoted woman has opened a dispensary for treatment, with plastic jackets, of children with diseases of the spine, together with a school for children too deformed to attend public schools. An outside service has generally been added to the dispensaries and lying-in hospitals. The Hospital Relief Association and the Sanitariums are all new, notably the great Wilson Sanitarium endowed with $500,000, for mothers and children.

Among the many homes and asylums of Baltimore should be noticed, for their enlightened management, the McDonogh School for Boys, opened in 1873, which has now $800,000 as endowment fund, and about 100 scholars; and the Ready Asylum for Female Orphans, opened in 1887, which has a fund of over $500,000, and cares for about 50 girls. The institutions for colored adults and children have all been opened since 1869, save the orphanage, which, begun in the war-times, was transferred in 1873 to the care of a fund left by Johns Hopkins. The total population of homes for the aged in Maryland, June 30, 1892, was 667; of homes for children, about 2,000, nearly all in Baltimore.

In many ways in recent years the public-spirited of Baltimore have been active. The Charity Organization Society, formed in 1881, and for some years doing but little, has become a power. Its inquiry department, for instance, is used by the mayor's office for cases of transportation from the city, at a saving of fifty per cent. of former expenditures. A Charity Organization has been established in Cumberland; and efforts for one are now being made in Annapolis, in order to turn the generous but spasmodic giving there, of the past cold winter, into continuous efforts for permanent improvement.

The time-honored Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor has laid out its relief-giving on lines of modern charitable methods. The Young Women's Christian Association, founded in 1883, has developed great usefulness; and co-operative homes have been multiplied. Two day nurseries, with small fees charged, and a dozen free kindergartens, have been opened recently. The Provident Savings Bank, opened in 1886, with six branches, with the stamp deposit system added, had some 50 stations and over 14,000 book accounts and 15,000 stamp accounts in five years. The Wilson Fuel-savings Society, organized in 1880 and endowed with $100,000, was selling in the tenth year over 3,000 tons of coal and 250 sewing-machines. A Woman's Industrial Exchange and a Decorative Art Society have helped many women to help themselves; and a sewing-machine room with electric motive power has taught sewing to, and then found employment for, over 60 women in its first year.

There is less need now in Baltimore of the formation of new charities than of the reformation of many old ones and the better enforcement of corrections. The protection of society against tramps and "bummers" remains to be accomplished in Maryland. The almshouses have been much demoralized and bled by them. An anti-tramp convention was held in 1877, but failed to secure legislation. Finally, several of the northern counties, Carroll and Frederick in the lead, began to require work in pay for entertainment. The past severe winter, 1892-93, saw Baltimore flooded with idle and needy men. The almshouse was crowded largely from without the State, and hundreds of dirty men were packed at night on the floors of the station-houses and in the Free-Sunday-Breakfast Association rooms. The one Friendly Inn and Wood-yard organized in 1884 under private management could apply its work test to a few only. Within sixty days over $10,700 in cash and over $5,500 in provisions, clothing, etc., were distributed through the police. All sources of charity were active; and free-soup houses quickly opened gave food to all who applied.* Experience in Baltimore in recent years has plainly shown that, until the authorities will handle beggars and tramps with reasonable rigor, all classes of the community will suffer, the tramp will be encouraged, the worthy poor will receive less attention, and the charitable will be unnecessarily taxed.

* The stopping of the oyster industry by the cold weather drove many worthy men into the ranks of applicants for relief.

[NOTE.— To attempt to put into figures any comparison between crime and pauperism of to-day and of twenty years ago would be most unsatisfactory, and might be misleading. Reliable data, if we had it, would be of but little significance without a detailed knowledge of much of the life of the community for the period. A few generalizations may, however, be safely given.

The number of commitments to the penitentiary have not increased in proportion to population. The colored predominated, though that population is under one-third of the whole population of Maryland. United States prisoners are now oftener sent elsewhere.

Inmates Nov. 30, 1869, 680, of whom 457 were colored.
1880, 685, of whom 424 were colored.
1890, 690, of whom 394 were colored.

In the House of Correction, opened 1879, there were 177 inmates in 1880, and 281 June 30, 1892. The colored numbered about one-third at first, but have risen to be over one-half.

The total of commitments to the Baltimore City jail yearly has not increased in proportion to population (the change in the magistrate system to a few salaried justices greatly reduced it.) The colored number fully one-half, though that population is less than one-fifth of the city.

Committed during year ending Nov. 26, 1870, 8,214, about one-half colored.
Committed during year ending Dec. 31, 1890, 10,395, over one-half colored.
In jail Nov. 26, 1870, 417.
In jail November (average), 1890, 466.

The census of 1870 gave the total number of convictions in Maryland in the year ending June 1 as 868; total number of inmates of prisons (penitentiary and jails) on June 1, as 1,035. The census of 1880 gave total of prisoners as 1,259; total of prisoners June 30, 1892, estimates at 1,750. The colored predominate.

By the census of 1890 Maryland stands fourth in number of inmates of juvenile reformatories,— males, 883; females, 178; total, 1,061. In 1870 the reformatories for juveniles held only half as many.

In the almshouses the whites have largely predominated. The average monthly number of inmates varies much between winter and summer.

At Baltimore City almshouse : —

Average number June, 1870, 604, of whom 138 were colored.
Average number December, 1870, 649, of whom 155 were colored.
Average number June, 1890, 907, of whom 141 were colored.
Average number December, 1890, 1,221, of whom 169 were colored.

The census of 1870 gave the total number of paupers during year ending June 1, 1,857 ; number on June 1, 1,612, of whom 566 were colored.

The census of 1880 gave 1,187 paupers in almshouses, of whom 330 were colored. Total number of paupers June 30, 1892, *not* counting some 700 insane supported by city and counties in asylums nor over 2,600 persons receiving pensions, about 2,000.]

INSTITUTIONS UNDER STATE CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost to 1893.	Operating expenses for last year.	Total number of days' board last year.
Maryland Penitentiary, ...	Baltimore,	$750,000	$77,663.84*	238,071
Maryland House of Correction, ...	Bridewell,	300,000	29,000.00	100,668
Maryland Hospital for Insane, ...	Catonville,	850,000	95,700.96	156,950
Asylum and Training School for the Feeble-minded of the State of Maryland, ...	Owing's Mills,	20,000	6,000.00	13,725
Maryland School for the Deaf and Dumb, . .	Frederick,	325,000	24,147.45	26,320

*Self-supporting.

MASSACHUSETTS.

BY COL. HENRY STONE.

The State Board of Lunacy and Charity as now organized is the successor of the "Board of State Charities" created by act of April 29, 1863. This was the first board of the kind established in the United States. After an existence of sixteen years it was reorganized by act of April 30, 1879, as the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity. By act of March 24, 1886, the State Board of

Health was created, and its functions thereupon ceased to be exercised by the Board of Lunacy and Charity.

Thus for thirty years the Commonwealth of Massachusetts has had continuously in existence a board specially charged with the supervision of its charities and the oversight of its insane. The annual reports of the Board contain full information on all matters coming within the scope of its duties, and best show how its work has been carried on. As September 30 is the date fixed for rendering these annual reports, that day is here used for purposes of comparison.

There were in Massachusetts on Sept. 30, 1872, three hospitals for the insane, built and owned by the State, whose affairs were managed by boards of unpaid trustees appointed by the governor. The valuation of their properties was $1,514,559.49. Their normal capacity was estimated at 350 each, or 1,050 in all. They held on that day a population of 1,286 insane patients. There were also at the same time in the State almshouses 299 insane, making a total in the State institutions on that day of 1,585. The total number that had been cared for during the year was 2,732, being an average during the year of 1,586. Of this number an average of 579 had been supported by the State at a cost of $78,658.36. During the year 284 patients, being 23.4 of the total admitted, were discharged as recovered.

In addition to these State hospitals there were in private and municipal hospitals and in town almshouses or under charge of friends 869 insane, making the total number of insane in the State on Sept. 30, 1872, 2,454.

Twenty years later, on Sept. 30, 1892, there were six hospitals for the insane, built and owned by the State, and valued at that date at $4,791,312.05. They held on that day a population of 3,934, an increase in that interval of three hospitals and 2,349 inmates. There were also in the State almshouse 380, and at the State farm 230 insane, and in addition at board in families 175, making the total number of insane under the direct supervision of the State 4,719. There were also in municipal and private hospitals 648, and in town almshouses 782 more, making an aggregate of 6,149. The whole number of patients cared for during the year in State hospitals was 6,113, giving an average of 4,392. Of these an average of 950 was supported by the State at an expense of $158,992.91. Of the total inmates, 428 were discharged as cured, being 18 per cent. of the number admitted. Of the 1,942 admitted during the year ending

Sept. 30, 1892, 1,285 were of foreign birth or parentage, being 65.6 per cent. of all admitted.

In 1872 there were three State almshouses built for the reception and care of paupers, who had never acquired under the laws of the Commonwealth any legal settlement in any town in the State. These almshouses were erected at a cost of $446,245.31, and contained a population on Sept. 30, 1872, of 1,381.

Before 1892 one of these almshouses was transformed into the State Primary School, a receptacle for juvenile offenders and neglected and abandoned children, and another into the State farm, an institution for the reception of insane criminals and others guilty of certain minor offences, leaving a single State almshouse, that at Tewksbury, which had become, meantime, practically a hospital. A few adult paupers still remained at the State Primary School. The total number of sane pauper inmates of these institutions on Sept. 30, 1892, was 1,003, the greater part of whom were at Tewksbury. Of the 2,973 paupers who were admitted at Tewksbury during the year 1892, 1,997, or 67.17 per cent., were of foreign parentage. Only 14.64 per cent. were born in Massachusetts.

The State farm was in 1872 one of the three State almshouses. It held on Sept. 30, 1892, a population of 788, of whom 230 were insane. Out of 1,015, the whole number admitted during the year, 637, or 62.76 per cent., were of foreign parentage. Less than 23 per cent. were born in Massachusetts. This institution approaches a prison in its character, 283 of its 558 sane inhabitants being sent there by courts; and most of its insane have committed crimes, and but for their insanity would be in some jail or prison. A considerable number are very dangerous, and have to be kept in close custody. Most of the inmates are engaged in various employments.

There existed in 1872 three State institutions for the training of juvenile offenders or of neglected or abandoned children. They contained on September 30 of that year 716 inmates.

On Sept. 30, 1892, the same institutions held a population of 572, of whom 291, or more than 47 per cent., were in the State Primary school. The population of the other two, the Lyman School for Boys and the State Industrial School for Girls, had fallen from 375 to 301. This marked diminution in numbers is due to the successful efforts to place out in good homes and make self-supporting as large a proportion as possible of the inmates. The whole policy of the

State is to reduce institution life to its minimum, making of these schools as far as can be merely clearing-houses where the juvenile delinquents who fall into its care shall, as speedily as may be, find better homes than they had before. And, when such homes are found, the State continues to exercise supervision over the children: first, by its own salaried visitors, who are carefully selected for their duties; and, second, by a large corps of auxiliary visitors made up of some of the best women in the Commonwealth, who give their unpaid services to the work.

The School for the Feeble-minded was opened in 1851 at South Boston. In 1891 it was moved into new and commodious buildings erected for the special uses of the school at Waltham. It had on the 30th of September, 1872, a population of 114. At the same date in 1892 it had 391, with accommodations for 450. There are two departments, the school and the custodial, the latter for the care and protection of the hopelessly imbecile, the former for those capable of receiving some mental instruction.

The Hospital Cottages for Children were opened in 1882. This institution has been largely assisted by the State, and is intended chiefly for the care of epileptic and deformed children. It had Sept. 30, 1892, a population of 97, of whom 60 were epileptics.

At one time the experiment of a school-ship was tried, where juvenile offenders were sent to learn seamanship, in the hope that a class of American seamen might be trained for use. At first, the project promised to be useful; but it was soon found that it did not answer the hopes and expectations of its friends, and in 1872 it was abandoned, and has not since been resumed.

The aim of all recent legislation in Massachusetts has been toward a differentiation rather than the aggregation of duties under a single department or commission. Thus, when the State Board of Charities was first organized, it had charge, not merely of the lunatic hospitals and State almshouses, but also of prisons and jails, and later of health. But gradually these varying duties were assigned to separate boards, so that at present there are the State Board of Lunacy and Charity, the Board of Prison Commissioners, and the State Board of Health, which do the work formerly performed by a single board. Each of these finds ample scope for its special work; and their reports, published annually by the legislature, show the extent and variety of their labors.

For many years the policy of the State has been to reduce what is known as institution life to the minimum. Children are never kept in institutions longer than may be necessary to secure for them good homes in families where they at once come in proper relations with their kind. Even city and town almshouses are forbidden by law to retain children under four years of age, the overseers of the poor being obliged to place such children in some respectable private family. If the town cannot find them homes, the State will and does. Infants who come into the custody of the State are at first placed temporarily in nurseries, but as soon as possible are placed at board in selected families, under the care of good, motherly women, and in healthy and well-kept homes; their mothers, when able, paying toward their support. A very large proportion of such infants are adopted during the first two years of their lives. Older children are boarded or placed in families, and their interests are looked after by agents of the State Board. Many of them become wage-earners, and such have to-day between four and five thousand dollars to their credit, earned and saved by themselves, in the charge partly of the State Board and partly in the charge of the State schools, to be paid over to them when they become of age.

A Hospital for Dipsomaniacs and Inebriates has also been built by the State, at a cost to the 31st of December, 1892, of $180,520.44; but it had not been opened at the end of the fiscal year.

STATE OF MASSACHUSETTS.

	Sept. 30, 1872.	*Sept.* 30, 1892.
Population of State hospitals for insane,	1,286	3,934
" " private and municipal hospitals for insane,	427	648
" " State almshouses (sane),	1,381	1,003
" " State almshouses (insane),	299	610
" " juvenile reformatories,	716	572
" " School for Feeble-minded,	114	398
" " Hospital Cottages for children,		97
Number of boarded-out children,	1,356	2,284
Inmates of jails and houses of correction,	1,801	3,152
" " State prison,	545	649
" " Reformatory Prison for Women,		283
" " Massachusetts Reformatory,		869
" " Boston House of Industry,	565	1,145
" " State farm,	298	308

Estimated population of the State April 1, 1892, 2,377,343.

Institutions under State Control.

Name.	Location.	Cost.	Expenses for year ending Sept. 30, 1892.	Number of days' board for year.
State Prison,	Boston,	$1,107,415.32	$167,270.64	237,534
Reformatory Prison for Women,	Sherborn,	430,083.32	56,020.96	90,036
Massachusetts Reformatory,	Concord,	1,189,265.78	179,190.14	318,054
Total prisons,		$2,726,764.42	$402,481.74	645,624
Worcester Lunatic Hospital,	Worcester,	$1,292,572.63	$155,919.99	312,936
Worcester Insane Asylum,	Worcester,	474,705.00	67,000.65	156,154
Taunton Lunatic Hospital,	Taunton,	490,208.14	121,685.63	252,927
Northampton Lunatic Hospital,	North'mpton,	433,991.11	76,309.89	171,218
Danvers Lunatic Hospital,	Danvers,	1,621,529 66	144,063.92	304,523
Westboro Insane Hospital,	Westboro,	472,060.00	99,635.57	185,643
Total insane institutions,		$4,785,066.54	$664,615.65	1,383,401
State Almshouse,	Tewksbury,	$630,508.65	$112,077.34	361,715
State Farm,	Bridgewater,	474,946.88	80,962.62	282,510
State Primary School,	Monson,	194,950.49	54,691.75	106,945
Lyman School for Boys,	Westboro,	157,064.41	50,660.56	74,416
Industrial School for Girls,	Lancaster,	78,276.31	21,454.12	32,558
Hospital for Dipsomaniacs, etc.,*	Foxboro,	180,520.44	—	—
Total of above,		$1,716,267.18	$319,846.39	858,144

* Not opened for patients.

Institutions partly under State Control.

Name.	Location.	Cost.	Expense for year ending Sept. 30, 1892.	Number of days' board for year.
Massachusetts School for Feeble-minded,	Waltham,	$313,636.37	$61,891.48	132,860
Hospital Cottages for Children,	Baldwinsville,	100,000.00	19,426.17	36,865
Total,		$413,636.37	$81,317.65	169,725
Other hospitals, etc., partly under State control,		$5,487,825.47	$323,803.53	256,544

MICHIGAN.

BY L. C. STORRS.

The past twenty years compass the period in which Michigan has made its advances in penal, charitable, and reformatory work. In that time she has about doubled her population. Her State Board of Corrections and Charities is entering on its twenty-first year (at the time of this report, June 30, 1892).

The past two decades have seen her prisons equipped with chapel and school-room, and the chaplain and teachers have been given their proper position in such institutions. Insane convicts have been removed from the place of confinement where it was reported, "They never get a ray of God's sunlight or a breath of that pure air which he so lavishly bestows upon the lowest of his creatures," to the asylum for insane criminals, which is officered by expert physicians, and where convicts are cared for as all others like afflicted are in the State asylums. Discharged prisoners need no longer "shift for themselves," but at the Home of Industry in Detroit can, if they desire, find a refuge and receive help, encouragement, and aid to employment at the hands of its "Mother," Mrs. Agnes L. d'Arcambal, the founder.

Juvenile reformation has reached out to and taken hold of wayward and unfortunate girls, having within the twenty years provided the Industrial Home for Girls at Adrian, from which, after a necessary time given to reformatory methods and industrial training, the girls are placed out in good homes to try their moral strength, which, if found too feeble, can again be built up by return of the girl to the institution.

Dependent and neglected children have received the special attention of Michigan during the past twenty years. Her State Public School at Coldwater has during such time received over 3,000 dependent children, which but for it would have grown up in the poorhouses of the State, and has placed them in good homes in the State,— homes selected with great care, and in which the child has constant State supervision. The average number at any one time in the institution is not much over 200, and $30,000 annually only is expended by the State for her dependent little ones.

The county agency system has been inaugurated and carried on

within the past twenty years. An agent is appointed in each county by the governor, whose duty it is to examine all circumstances connected with cases of juvenile arrests before any trial can proceed; to advise with and counsel the court, and recommend what disposition shall be made of the matter. He has also to examine and report to the institution on the homes of persons desiring to take children from such, and, if the report is favorable and a child placed out, must supervise such child during his stay.

The School for the Blind separate and apart from that for the deaf and dumb has been established, and has been maintained during the last two decades.

Our almshouses have increased from fifty to seventy-two, and our jails from sixty to eighty.

Plan of construction in each of these county institutions has greatly improved, and the fact that Michigan's almshouses are beginning to be called "county homes" is an indication of an advance in the idea of the manner in which such institutions should be conducted. The jails, however, are conducted much after the old style. Our hope is that, following closely on advanced and more perfect ideas of construction, thus securing greater conveniences, there will be something approximating, at least, the proper maintenance of a jail.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER STATE CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost of institution to June 30, 1892.	Gross operating expenses for year ending June 30, 1892.	Total days' board during year ending June 30, 1892.
State Prison,	Jackson,	$868,200	$92,200	279,433
Upper Peninsular Prison,	Marquette,	251,500	40,200	43,718
State House of Correction,	Ionia,	414,800	81,700	122,874
Reform School (Boys),	Lansing,	255,500	56,200	181,669
Industrial Home (Girls),	Adrian,	172,800	42,300	77,823
Michigan Asylum for Insane,	Kalamazoo,	950,500	192,000	381,236
Eastern Asylum for Insane,	Pontiac,	793,200	189,300	328,117
Northern Asylum for Insane,	Traverse City,	640,600	162,900	291,655
Asylum for Dangerous and Criminal Insane,	Ionia,	138,700	30,300	57,700
State Public School for Neglected and Dependent Children,	Coldwater,	227,800	36,000	75,959
School for Deaf,	Flint,	494,100	51,800	77,504
School for Blind,	Lansing,	221,500	23,600	20,614
		$5,429,200	$998,500	1,938,302

The insane have increased in Michigan as they have in every other State; and two large asylums have been erected by the State within the period covered by the report, all of which are now more than full. Besides these, two private asylums for the care and treatment of such unfortunate persons have sprung into existence.

MINNESOTA.

BY JOHN W. WILLIS.

In the year 1858 the State government was organized. The population of the State was then about 150,000, the census of the year 1860 showing the population to be 172,023. In 1860 the number of inmates in the State charitable and correctional institution was only sixteen. In 1870 the number of such inmates was 426; in 1880, 1,257; in 1890, 3,425. In 1870 the State institutions had 1 inmate for every 1,032 inhabitants; in 1880, 1 for every 621; in 1890, 1 for every 380 inhabitants.

The expenditure for the support of these institutions and for their enlargement and improvement was $11,000 for the period of two years, ending with the year 1862; $305,000 from 1868 to 1870; $606,000 from 1878 to 1880; and $1,850,000 from 1888 to 1890.

Biennial Period.	Population of the State.	Expended for correctional and charitable institutions.	Number of inmates of State institutions.	Ratio of inmates of institutions to inhabitants of the State.	Expended per inhabitant.
1860-62	203,000	$11,100	23	1 inmate to 8,926	$0.15
1862-64	235,000	26,600	61	1 " " 3,853	.11
1864-66	280,000	72,000	92	1 " " 3,043	.26
1866-68	355,000	299,300	247	1 " " 1,437	.84
1868-70	439,706	304,600	426	1 " " 1,032	.69
1870-72	490,000	393,300	515	1 " " 951	.80
1872-74	559,000	638,800	681	1 " " 821	1.14
1874-76	629,000	435,600	901	1 " " 698	.69
1876-78	695,000	482,500	1,098	1 " " 633	.69
1878-80	780,773	605,700	1,257	1 " " 621	.71
1880-82	900,000	785,700	1,446	1 " " 622	.87
1882-84	1,040,000	851,600	1,846	1 " " 563	.82
1884-86	1,155,000	999,400	2,338	1 " " 494	.87
1886-88	1,225,000	1,245,700	3,011	1 " " 407	1.02
1888-90	1,301,826	1,850,100	3,425	1 " " 380	1.42

The legislative appropriations for the support of the State charitable and correctional institutions during the fiscal year ending July 31, A.D. 1891, amounted to $148,000; and the appropriations for the year ending July 31, A.D. 1892, amounted to $1,325,000; the latter amount constituted 55.4 per cent. of the entire expenditures of the State government for the year mentioned.

At the date of the organization of the State government, the only State charitable or correctional institution was the penitentiary, in the city of Stillwater on the St. Croix River. It was organized in 1851. The prison buildings are built of stone, and contain 579 cells.

The number of inmates in the State prison was 15 in the year 1860, 71 in the year 1870, 90 in the year 1872, and 329 in the year 1892. The largest convict population ever congregated within the walls of the State prison was 440 in 1889. Since that year the prison population has declined.

In 1887, in obedience to the dictates of prison science, a State Reformatory was organized, and was located in the city of St. Cloud, on the Mississippi River, about a hundred miles from St. Paul. The site of the Reformatory is a tract of land containing a large and valuable granite quarry. 100 inmates were received during the last five months of the year 1889. During the year 1892 the Reformatory contained, on an average, 129 convicts.

Care of the Insane.— The first Minnesota hospital for the treatment of the insane was created by an act of the legislature passed at the session of the year 1866. The hospital was located at the city of St. Peter on the Minnesota River. The building has been gradually enlarged until it consists at the present time of one immense structure, four stories high. The hospital has two detached wards, each two stories and an attic in height, erected at a cost of $100,000. Each of these detached wards accommodates 230 patients of the quiet class. The buildings in which inmates are lodged are all either entirely fire-proof or belong to the class of buildings known as "slow burning." In 1877 a second hospital for the insane was commenced in the city of Rochester. It consists of a main hospital building and one detached ward. The third hospital, established at the city of Fergus Falls in 1887, is a fine institution under the control of the Homœopathic School of Medicine. The total expenditure upon buildings of that institution, for building purposes,

has been about $500,000. The number of patients cared for in the hospitals for the insane was 30 in 1866, 247 in 1872, and 2,238 in 1892. At the session of 1879, an institution was established at Faribault for the care of the feeble-minded. The institution has buildings constructed of blue limestone, which cost about $150,000. The care and treatment are based upon the most approved methods in vogue in Europe and in America. In 1879 the number of feeble-minded persons under State care was 16: in 1892 it was 316. One important feature of the policy adopted by the State of Minnesota is to continue the custodial care of the imbeciles throughout the lifetime of every such unfortunate person coming under the care of the State.

The Care of the Deaf.— At the first session of the State legislature in 1858 an act was passed establishing the Minnesota State Institute for the education of the deaf and dumb. It was located in the city of Faribault, and the school was opened in 1863.

As a part of the education of the deaf, several trades are thoroughly taught. The number of children under the charge of the school for the deaf was 58 in 1872, and 208 in 1892.

The Care of the Blind.— An excellent school for the education of the blind was instituted at Faribault, Minn., in 1866. The school is free to all blind children and youth, in the State of Minnesota, between the ages of eight and twenty-five. The pupils are furnished with board, care, and tuition. The average attendance at the school was 50 pupils for the years 1888–1889, and 59 for the years 1889–1890. At the close of the fiscal year of 1892 the number of pupils was 54.

The State Public School.— Recognizing not only the extreme impropriety, but the positive danger of rearing children in almshouses, the State of Minnesota has fully and forever abandoned that antiquated plan. A magnificent building, costing over $75,000, has been erected at the city of Owatonna; and in the immediate neighborhood of that building several brick cottages have been erected, and these buildings, together with stables, barns, pump-houses, and other necessary out-buildings, all costing about $150,000, have been allotted to the use of the State institution for the care of neglected and dependent children. The institution is called "The State Public School"; and it receives, provides for, and educates all children who would otherwise be committed to almshouses. The number of

children thus cared for at the close of the last fiscal year was 129. The institution is conducted upon the plan of placing the children in private families as rapidly as possible. All children placed in private families are periodically visited, and their welfare is constantly guarded by the officers of the State Public School. No religious discrimination is made. Children are placed in families corresponding with the denominational affiliation of their parents, when that fact is known. In case it is not known, children are freely and impartially placed either in Catholic or Protestant families. From the opening of the school in December, 1886, to October, 1890, the number of children received at the State Public School was 380. Of those, 93 were remaining in the school at the latter date, the others having, with few exceptions, been placed in private homes to the mutual advantage of both themselves and their foster parents.

The Reform School.— In 1866 the State Reform School was organized, and was located at the State capital. In 1890 it was transferred to the city of Red Wing. The buildings consist of a main building, two cottages, and a beautiful fire-proof building for the use of the girls. The last-mentioned building is over a quarter of a mile from the buildings occupied by the boys. A complete mental, moral, physical, and industrial training is provided. The annual expenditures for the support of the institution are about $55,000, of which the school itself furnishes about $10,000 from the proceeds of various industries. In 1868 the number of inmates of the Reform School was 36; in 1872, 106; in 1892, 287.

The Soldiers' Home.— This institution is well equipped and well conducted. The provision for the care of the veterans is more elaborate than is usually made by individual States. The number of inmates was 63 in the year 1888,— the first year during which the institution was in operation,— and, at the close of the fiscal year 1892, 146.

In addition to the establishment of the Soldiers' Home, the State of Minnesota, like New Jersey, Ohio, and Rhode Island, has provided a "Soldiers' Relief Fund." This fund is provided by a tax levy of one-tenth of one per cent. upon all the taxable property in the State. The disbursements so far made from this fund are as follows: —

For 1887–88	$13,571.57
For 1888–89	34,682.79
For 1889–90	46,012.62
For 1890–91	51,800.66
For 1891–92	39,370.42
Total	$185,437.86

The total number of applications for this relief has been 2,647.

The number of applications from Aug. 12, 1890, to July 31, 1892, has aggregated 1,283, classified as follows: ex-soldiers, 882; soldiers' widows, 360; soldiers' dependent parents, 27; guardians of soldiers' orphans, 14. The number of beneficiaries on the roll July 31, 1892, was 586, receiving a monthly average of $5.50 each. For February, 1892, there were 668 recipients on the roll, receiving an average of $6.75 each.

Improvements in Prison Discipline.— During the past two years advances have been made in the establishment of a reformatory discipline at the State prison: First, by the action of the governor in establishing a conditional pardon system. This action was taken on recommendation of a committee of the State Board of Corrections and Charities. The system went into effect June 1, 1892; and up to October 31 six men had received conditional pardons. This action of the governor was a new departure in penology without precedent; but thus far it has met with no unfavorable criticism, and has largely stopped the pressure for pardons.

Second, by the establishment by the board of managers, in accordance with the governor's instructions, of a system of grades and marks in the State prison. The men are now divided into three grades. The first-grade men wear gray suits, the second-grade men checked suits, and the third-grade men wear stripes. The first and second grade men eat in the dining-room, with some small differences in diet; while the third-grade men eat in their cells. The first and second grade men receive a more liberal good-time allowance than the third-grade men, and receive a larger number of privileges.

Third, by the appointment of a State agent for the assistance of discharged prisoners, whose duty it is to find employment in advance for prisoners about to be discharged, and to place them directly in situations with employers who will not discharge them on account of their previous prison record.

The results of this system are very encouraging. They are seen in an improved disposition on the part of the convicts, and in a diminution of efforts to secure the pardons of convicts by means of outside influence. A small number of men find their way into the third grade, and show a disposition to resist the new order of things; and the result is simply to deprive them of their privileges, and the better class of convicts lend no countenance to these rebellious individuals.

Almshouses.— The almshouses of the State of Minnesota are generally well conducted. Thirty of the eighty counties in the State have public almshouses. The almshouse of Ramsey County is an institution of merit. The total number of inmates of poorhouses in the year 1890 was 702; in 1891, 713. The average number was 348 for the year 1890, and 385 for the year 1891.

Pauperism.— The ratio of pauperism in Minnesota is very low. The census of 1890 shows that there are in the United States 1,166 almshouse paupers in a million inhabitants, while Minnesota has only 280 in a million. This record is in marked contrast with that of the older States. For example, New Hampshire has 3,036 almshouse paupers in a million inhabitants; Massachusetts, 2,110; New York, 1,713; Pennsylvania, 1,646; Ohio, 2,015. Among neighboring States: Illinois has 1,410; Iowa, 848; Missouri, 888; Kansas, 416. Of the North Central States, only North Dakota, South Dakota, and Nebraska have so low a ratio as Minnesota. This favorable condition is partly due to the fact that Minnesota has no insane in almshouses.

We have no reliable statistics as to the number of outdoor paupers in other States, except Massachusetts. There were in that State, Jan. 1, 1891 (excluding insane paupers), 6,018 paupers receiving full support, and 18,797 receiving partial support; total, 24,815 paupers. There were in Minnesota at the same date 814 paupers receiving full support, and 5,467 receiving partial support; total, 6,281 paupers. The ratios were as follows: —

NUMBER OF PAUPERS IN A MILLION INHABITANTS.

	Massachusetts.	*Minnesota.*
Fully supported	2,684	625
Partly supported	8,396	4,200
Totals	11,080	4,825

While the whole number of paupers in other States cannot be definitely ascertained, the relative amount of pauperism may be roughly inferred from the amount spent in relieving the poor. The following is the annual expenditure for each inhabitant in the States named (excluding maintenance of insane in State institutions): Massachusetts, 1890–91, 67.8 cents; New York, 1890, 55.3 cents; Pennsylvania, 1890, 33.4 cents; Ohio, 1891, 32.1 cents; Michigan, 1889, 37.8 cents; Indiana, 1890–91, 36.7 cents; Illinois, 1889, 35.9 cents; Wisconsin, 1889, 24.2 cents; Minnesota, 1891, 23.7 cents for each inhabitant of the State.

The census of 1890 makes a favorable showing for this State in every department of corrections and charities. The number of State convicts in a million inhabitants is as follows (see Census Bulletin, No. 31): —

In the United States	722
In the "North Central Division" (Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas)	491
In Minnesota	332

Minnesota has less than half as many convicts as the average. Only six States have a better record: Maine, 257; New Hampshire, 308; Vermont, 274; Wisconsin, 314; Iowa, 326; and South Dakota, 295; while New York has 1,365; Illinois, 538; Kansas, 643; and California, 1,698, in a million inhabitants.

The number of county jail prisoners in a million inhabitants is as follows (see Census Bulletin, No. 95): —

In the United States	312
In the "North Central Division"	189
In Minnesota	160

Minnesota has a little more than half as many jail prisoners, in proportion to her population, as the average. Only four States have a better record: Vermont, 90; Maryland, 156; Ohio, 137; and North Dakota, 136; while Maine has 457; Virginia, 905; Indiana, 212; Wisconsin, 205: Kansas, 303; Montana, 1,460; and California, 565, in a million.

The number of inmates of juvenile reformatories in a million

inhabitants in those States having reform schools is as follows (see Census Bulletin, No. 72): —

In the United States (26 States)	328
In the "North Central Division" (except North and South Dakota)	250
In Minnesota	218

Minnesota has just two-thirds as many juvenile delinquents as the average. Only six States that have juvenile reformatories have as low a ratio of inmates of juvenile reformatories as Minnesota: Illinois, 100; Missouri, 134; Kansas, 146; Kentucky, 147; Louisiana, 77; and California, 171; but several of these States make inadequate provision for their delinquent children: Connecticut has 839 in a million inhabitants; New Jersey, 421; Ohio, 416; Michigan, 332; and Colorado, 371.

The number of almshouse paupers in a million inhabitants is as follows (see Census Bulletin, No. 90): —

In the United States	1,166
In the "North Central Division"	1,145
In Minnesota	280

Minnesota has less than one-fourth as many almshouse paupers as the average. Only eleven States have as low a ratio: North Dakota, 192; South Dakota, 161; Nebraska, 275; Colorado, 211; New Mexico, 7; Idaho, 237; Washington, 203; Florida, 61; Arkansas, 198; Louisiana, 109; and Texas 208, in a million inhabitants. But no one of these States (except, perhaps, Colorado and Nebraska) makes adequate provision for its paupers. New Hampshire has 3,036 almshouse paupers in a million inhabitants; Pennsylvania, 1,646; Maryland, 1,534; Ohio, 2,015; Iowa, 848; Kansas, 416; Kentucky, 849; Nevada, 940; and California, 2,152, in a million inhabitants.

The number of State convicts out of each million white males of voting age is as follows (see Census Bulletins, Nos. 31 and 194): —

	All classes.	*Native born.*	*Foreign born.*
In the United States,	2,010	2,108	1,671
In the "North Central Division,"	1,524	1,678	916
In Minnesota,	1,112	1,686	706

It appears from this statement that the proportion of criminals among the foreign-born males of voting age in Minnesota is less

than half that of the United States, and is also less than half that of the native-born inhabitants of Minnesota. The statistics of county jails show similar facts, the proportions between native and foreign prisoners being nearly the same as in the State prisons.

The number of insane persons in a million inhabitants is as follows (Census Bulletin not yet published): —

In the United States,	1,698
In the "North Central" States,	1,649
In Minnesota,	1,693

There has been a popular impression that Minnesota had more than the average amount of insanity, but this is not the case. The ratio of insanity in Minnesota is a little less than the average in the United States, though it is a little more than the average ratio of the "North Central" States.

The States of California and New York have each 2,976 insane in a million inhabitants: Massachusetts, 2,732; New Jersey, 2,188: Wisconsin, 2,083; Ohio, 2,070; Michigan, 1,780; and Illinois, 1,736.

The "North Central" States which have a lower ratio than Minnesota are Iowa, 1,675; Indiana, 1,500; Missouri, 1,279; Kansas, 1,259; North Dakota, 1,215; South Dakota, 943; and Nebraska, 882.

Minnesota shows a higher ratio of insanity than some of the neighboring States, because she makes fuller provision for her insane than other States. Minnesota is the only State in the Union, except, perhaps, California, which is making provision for all of her insane in State institutions, without any charge back upon counties or individuals. Other States, notably New York, Ohio, and Indiana, are striving to reach the Minnesota standard; but still have many insane persons in county asylums or almshouses or in private families. In view of these facts, the ratio of insanity in Minnesota does not appear to be excessive.

In the year 1872 the total population of the State charitable and correctional institutions was 573. At the close of the fiscal year, A.D. 1892, that population had increased to 3,836.

Recent Advances.— At the last session of the State legislature an act was passed providing a new code, regulating the construction and management of county jails. Among the important features of

this act is the provision for the appointment of a matron, who shall have sole charge of all female prisoners: the strict requirement that the sexes shall be separated; that no child shall be allowed to come in contact with adult prisoners; and that all prisoners shall be kept strictly separated from one another. Under this act, no contract for the construction of any county jail is valid, unless the plans for the building have been approved by the State Board of Corrections and Charities. By this act provision was also made for the erection of district jails for districts comprising more than one county, when, in the judgment of the authorities, each county in such district was not able to provide and maintain a proper jail, independently of other counties. The erection of the district jails will be a measure of great value and importance. At the same session of the legislature an act was passed which provided a new and greatly improved method for the commitment of persons alleged to be insane. The act also provided for the effectual supervision by the public of all private institutions for the care of insane patients. Another provision of the act gave authority to the board of trustees of hospitals for the insane to procure board for the chronic insane in private families.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER STATE CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost of institution to July 31, 1892.	Operating expenses year ending July 31, 1892.	Total days' board during year.
Hospital for Insane,	St. Peter,	$775,500	$155,800	$355,090
Hospital for Insane,	Rochester,	571,400	179,500	396,839
Hospital for Insane,	Fergus Falls,	295,300	53,600	49,733
Total Insane,		$1,642,200	$388,900	$801,662
Soldiers' Home,	Minneapolis,	224,300	38,700	51,512
School for Deaf,	Faribault,	288,200	37,300	54,931
School for Blind,	Faribault,	78,000	14,700	14,143
School for Feeble-minded,	Faribault,	218,800	52,600	111,830
School for Dependent Children,	Owatonna,	152,100	23,200	47,665
School for State Reform,	Red Wing,	363,400	54,200	106,939
State Reformatory,	St. Cloud,	196,900	38,700	45,531
State Prison,	Stillwater,	906,200	56,900	119,555
		*$4,070,100	$705,200	$1,353,718

* Per inventories of State institutions July 31, 1892.

The State Board of Corrections and Charities.— The efficiency and excellent tone of the State institutions for the care of the dependent, delinquent, and criminal classes are largely due to the careful and capable supervision of such institutions by the State Board of Corrections and Charities. This Board was created by an act of the legislature, approved on the second day of March, A.D. 1883. The Board consists of six persons appointed by the governor, with the advice and consent of the State senate. The law provides that not more than three members of the Board shall belong to the same political party.

MISSISSIPPI.

BY GOVERNOR J. M. STONE.

List of the charitable and correctional institutions maintained from the State treasury: —

Institutions.	*Year Organized.*	*Approximate Value of Plant.*	*Annual Appropriation.*
State Lunatic Asylum, Jackson, ...	1842	$750,000	$92,500
Institute for the Deaf and Dumb, Jackson,	1856	125,000	17,180
Institute for the Blind, ...	1855	80,000	7,861
East Mississippi Insane Asylum, Meridian,	1884	225,000	34,500
* State Penitentiary, Jackson, ...	1836	150,000	—
Charity Hospital, Vicksburg, ...	1866	75,000	7,500
Natchez Hospital, Natchez, ...	1870	75,000	5,000

No dependants are kept in institutions of other States.

The State contributes to the support of the hospitals at Vicksburg and Natchez. The present annual appropriation from the State treasury to that at Vicksburg is $7,500, and to that at Natchez $5,000. The cities, respectively, furnish the rest.

There has been no important legislation during the past two years on these affairs, except that a large portion of the buildings of the lunatic asylum at Jackson was destroyed by fire, involving a loss of more than $100,000, which appropriation was made by the legislature; and the buildings have been replaced and refurnished.

Each county has its jail and poorhouse. The jails are generally safe and comparatively comfortable, some of them quite expensive,

* Self-sustaining by appropriation.

and *very* comfortable, while others are less so, and a few quite inferior and uncomfortable, the last in the poorer counties, and generally with few inmates.

At Natchez there are two orphans' homes, one under the control of and supported by the Catholics, the other by Protestants, both of which are doing great good, and are well appointed for a city of the population of Natchez.

MISSOURI.

BY MARY E. PERRY.

The disorder in Missouri that attended the late war, and the many changes in public administration that followed it, prevented the careful conservation of reports necessary to an accurate history of the charities and reformatory and correctional system of the State. Indeed, it might be said that for eight or ten years after the war there was no system at all, only a crude, unorganized arrangement of institutions that had grown up through instinctive, generous, and unscientific effort; and even these had to be left to the liberal but incoherent benevolence which founded them, while a disordered society devoted its energies to a readjustment of itself on a new basis of action. The most marked feature of progress in this matter is the gradual yielding of the punitive to the reformatory spirit, and the displacement of the resentful idea in the treatment of the unfortunate, the vicious, and the criminal with the benign conviction that seeks for their reclamation, not only as more in keeping with Christian precepts, but as the better economy.

Reformatories.— Missouri ranks thirteenth among the States in the number of inmates in juvenile reformatories, the whole number of such inmates on Jan. 1, 1893, being 382, an increase in the ten preceding years which is not as great in proportion as the increase in the State's population in the same period. There are three institutions of this kind: the State Reform School for Boys at Boonville, opened in 1889, and in which down to the present time 243 boys have been received; the Industrial School for Girls at Chillicothe, established in 1887, and in which 22 girls have been received down to the present time; and the House of Refuge in St. Louis,

for both boys and girls, in which there were on the 1st of January, 1893, 190 boys,— 160 white and 30 colored,— and 66 girls, making altogether 256 inmates. Prior to the establishment of the Boys' Reform School at Boonville the State made no effort for the reformation and reclamation of wayward and abandoned boys; and those under sixteen years of age convicted of crime were simply sent to jail, from which they came out worse than when they went in.

Insane.— The State has three asylums for insane persons,— No. 1 at Fulton, No. 2 at St. Joseph, and No. 3 at Nevada, being numbered in the order of their establishment. In addition to these, there is the St. Louis Lunatic Asylum at St. Louis, under control of the municipal authorities, and supported chiefly by the city, but partly by State appropriations. The whole number of inmates in these four institutions on the 1st of January, 1893, was 1,942,— 568 in No. 1 at Fulton, 541 in No. 2 at St. Joseph, 312 in No. 3 at Nevada, and 521 in the St. Louis Asylum.

Hospitals.— The State has no hospital for the treatment of the unfortunate sick who are unable to pay the expenses of their own treatment. But, happily, ample provision for such cases exists in the municipal, church, individually endowed, and other establishments. which humane persons and associations have established. There are twenty-seven of these, showing on the 1st of January, 1893, a total of 2,108 patients under treatment, and an aggregate of 34,332 persons treated in them during the year 1892,— the estimated population of the State being 2,801,978. Their names are: the St. Louis City Hospital, having on the 1st of January, 1893, 439 patients; the St. Louis Female Hospital, 208 patients; the Mullanphy Hospital in St. Louis, 108 patients; the Missouri Pacific Hospital, established and supported by the Missouri Pacific Railroad Company for the treatment of its employees, 185 patients; the Homœopathic Hospital, 48 patients; the Missouri Baptist Sanitarium, 59 patients; St. Luke's Episcopal Hospital, 39 patients, and with a record of 453 patients treated during the twenty-five years of its existence; the Rebekah Hospital, 27 patients; the Evangelical Lutheran Hospital, 70 patients; the St. Louis Children's Hospital, 45 patients; the Protestant Hospital Association, 20 patients; the Martha Parsons Free Hospital for children, 25 patients; St. John's Catholic Hospital, 45 patients; St. Ann's Lying-in Hospital, 40 patients; St. Mary's Infirmary, 100 patients; the Alexian Brothers' Hospital, 207

patients; the Beaumont Hospital, 7 patients; the Good Samaritan Hospital, 75 patients; the Woman's Hospital, 4 patients. These hospitals are all in the city of St. Louis. In addition there are located in other parts of the State: the second Missouri Pacific Hospital at Kansas City, 81 patients; St. Joseph's Hospital at Kansas City, 40 patients; the Children's Free Hospital at Kansas City, 20 patients; the Kansas City Hospital in Kansas City, 164 patients; the German Hospital at Kansas City, 45 patients; All Saints' Hospital at Kansas City, 52 patients; the Corby Hospital at St. Joseph, 30 patients; Ensworth Hospital, St. Joseph, 157 patients; and the City Hospital at Hannibal, 10 patients.

In the list of institutions in St. Louis here named, several are the product of individual benefactions which shed fragrant memories around the names of their benevolent founders: the Mullanphy Hospital, established sixty-five years ago by the honored citizen whose name it bears, and whose usefulness is attested by the fact that there were treated in it, free of charge, in the year 1892, 2,912 patients: St. Ann's Hospital, founded seventy years ago, through the munificence of Mrs. Ann Biddle, and furnishing treatment and relief in that time to 14,500 patients; and the Martha Parsons Free Hospital for Children, founded nine years ago as the Augusta Free Hospital for Children, but having changed its name to be a monument to the wife of Mr. Charles Parsons, who gave it a liberal bounty. The institution has been fortunate in enlisting the sympathy and active support of many wealthy and influential ladies of St. Louis, and they are endeavoring now to provide a home in the country where the unfortunate little ones brought to it may have the benefit of fresh air in the summer season. The other hospitals have been founded and organized through the associated effort of churches and philanthropic individuals; and it will not be considered inappropriate to remark in this place that this spirit of associated benevolence in St. Louis, already strong and active, grows with the necessities for its efforts, and contemplates no such thing as rest as long as human suffering calls on it for relief. The Rebekah is a woman's hospital, and the result of woman's effort, having been founded and built up through the exertions of charitable and enterprising ladies who sought to provide in it an establishment where sick and injured women might have comfortable accommodations and the best medical treatment without being taken to the general City Hospital.

Asylums.— In addition to the three State Asylums for the Insane and the St. Louis Lunatic Asylum, the State School for the Blind in St. Louis, having in 1892 105 pupils, and the State Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at Fulton, having 282 inmates, there are many other establishments of refuge and shelter, founded by individual and associated effort, and maintained by voluntary contributions, which embrace in their generous scope all the conditions of human distress not provided for in the public eleemosynary system. Many of these are comparatively young, the product of that sympathetic awakening which has exhibited itself so conspicuously in the last two decades; and it is gratifying to observe that the good they are doing is constantly provoking the organization of others.

In St. Louis one of the most venerable and most useful of these institutions is the St. Louis Protestant Orphan Asylum, founded in 1834 by Mrs. Ann Perry. Its beginning, like that of many other beneficent institutions, was small and humble,— a one-story building with six orphan children; but it had an expanding field to work in, and it possessed a spirit equal to the increasing demands on it. And now its seat is at Webster Groves, a charming suburban town ten miles from St. Louis, on the Missouri Pacific Railroad, where it owns a group of buildings in the Queen Anne style, in the midst of spacious and beautiful grounds, valued at $81,000. It had on the 1st of January, 1893, 87 orphans within its sheltering walls.

The Blind Girls' Home, the work of the St. Louis Women's Christian Association, takes unfortunate girls for life, if they desire to remain. It is less than twenty years old, and contained on the first day of the present year 13 inmates.

The German Evangelical Orphan's Home, located at Des Peres, fifteen miles from St. Louis, in a beautiful rural district, contains 84 inmates. The Methodist Orphan's Home, which is something over twenty years old, has 35 inmates.

The Memorial Home for the Aged, first opened in 1882, is another product of the St. Louis Women's Christian Association. It had on the 1st of January, 1893, 55 inmates, one of whom had just vindicated his claim to the benefits of the institution by celebrating his one hundred and fifth birthday. This establishment and the St. Louis Protestant Orphan Asylum, already noticed, owe no small share of their success to the Sanitary Commission of St. Louis, instituted during the Civil War for the relief of sick and wounded

Union soldiers, and which, after the close of the war, divided the unexpended funds in its hands among other charitable societies engaged in permanent work. The St. Louis Protestant Orphan Asylum received from the Sanitary Commission the Soldiers' Home at Webster Groves, which the Commission had no further use for; and the Memorial Home for the Aged received from it $10,000 in money on the condition, promptly complied with, that twice as much more should be obtained within a given time from other sources.

The Home of the Friendless, founded in 1853, had on the 1st of January, 1893, 66 inmates, all old ladies. The Home for Aged and Infirm Israelites, founded ten years ago, has 28 inmates.

Bethesda Home, with its two branches, the Maternity and the Bethesda Foundling Asylum, was founded a little over three years ago, on the simple basis of faith and prayer for its support; and, although it has grown and expanded until its expenses for maintaining three houses and providing for an increasing number of beneficiaries are large, it has not abandoned its rule of trust in God for what it needs, nor has it failed of a generous support. It has 50 inmates, 11 in the Home for Aged Women, 30 infants in the Foundling Asylum, and 9 patients in the Maternity.

The St. Louis Deaconess Home, opened in 1890, has 9 inmates. The White Cross Home, a Protestant asylum and reformatory for betrayed girls, was opened in 1888, and has now 11 inmates.

The Home for the Aged, established twenty-four years ago, and maintained by the Little Sisters of the Poor, has afforded shelter and support to 1,500 persons during its existence, and has now 270 old persons within its hospitable walls.

The Christian Orphans' Home, opened in 1889, and supported by Christian churches in Missouri and Illinois, has 20 children in its charge. The Baptist Orphan's Home has 49 children. The Episcopal Orphans' Home, one of the oldest in the State, having been founded in 1843, has 62 children. The Evangelical Lutheran Hospital has 25 children. The St. Joseph's Catholic Orphan Asylum for Boys, established in 1841, has 150 inmates. The St. Louis Colored Orphans' Home, established in 1888 by the Harper Branch of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union has 32 inmates. The German Protestant Orphans' Home, founded in 1858, has 283 inmates. The Girls' Industrial Home, established more than thirty years ago, has cared for 8,500 helpless girls, and has now 64 in its charge.

In the State outside St. Louis.— The Christian Orphans' School and Home at Fulton has an average of 110 inmates. The Camden Point Orphans' Home and School has 120 inmates. The Central Wesleyan Orphans' Home at Warrensburgh has 50 children in its care. The Home of the Friendless at Springfield has been in existence several years, but no report has been received from it. The Home of the Friendless at Hannibal, founded in 1876, has 15 inmates. The South Side Day Nursery has 19 inmates.

Other Charitable Institutions.— Besides the homes, asylums, and refuges named above there are other establishments which, without conspicuous buildings, do a great deal of helpful work in relief of suffering. One of the oldest and most efficient and useful of these is the Provident Association in St. Louis, composed chiefly of men of means, which sends its agents to the abodes of sick and destitute families, and distributes thousands of dollars' worth of food, clothing, and fuel, exerting itself most actively in the winter months, when the calls of distress are most urgent.

There is a Confederate Soldiers' Home at Higginsville, founded and chiefly supported by the Daughters of the Confederacy, where disabled Confederate soldiers are cared for.

The Marie Consilu Deaf-mute Institute in St. Louis, partly charitable, has 35 inmates. The Women's Training School, a branch of the St. Louis Women's Christian Association, has 421 inmates; and the Women's Exchange, the Decorative Art Society, the Queen's Daughters, the King's Daughters, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Protective Society for Women and Children, the Mission Free Schools, the Rose Shoe Fund, the Women's Humane Society of Missouri, the Women's Relief Corps, the Twelve Aid Society, the Children's Golden Chain Humane Society, the Working-girl's Self-culture Club, the Working-girl's Free Library, the Mary and Martha Society for relieving the poor, the Hygienic Sanitarium, diet-kitchens and dispensaries, may all be reckoned as auxiliaries in the vast work of benevolence.

Almshouses.— There are eighty-eight almshouses in as many counties in the State, having in them an aggregate of 2,603 paupers,— an increase of 901 in the last ten years. Eighteen counties have none.

Prisons.— There is but one penitentiary in the State. It is located

at Jefferson City, the State capital, and contained on Jan. 1, 1893, 1,709 convicts. On the same date there were 715 prisoners in the county jails. In 1890 the whole number of prisoners in the State prison and county jails of the State was 2,833,— 2,687 men, and 146 women; and the number charged with homicide was 233. The growing public sentiment of the last twenty years in favor of mitigating the hard lot of convict prisoners has brought about an abolition of the whipping of women for punishment, and the introduction of other gentle features in the prison discipline. Ex-Governor Francis, in a humane spirit which reveals an intelligent recognition of the true prison management of the future, recommended in his last message that the price paid for convict labor by contractors be increased to 50 or 75 cents per capita a day, and that 10 cents a day of the earnings of every convict be set apart for himself or his family.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER STATE CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost of institutions, 1893.	Operating expenses of institutions for past fiscal year.	Total number of days' board of inmates during past fiscal year.
State Prison,	Jefferson City,	$692,144.90	$51,556.84	1,212,965
Insane Asylum, No. 1,	Fulton,	771,431.80	41,888.24	203,670
Insane Asylum, No. 2,	St. Joseph,	602,672.24	32,676.89	197,465
Insane Asylum, No. 3,	Nevada,	380,000.00	41,834.72	113,880
Deaf and Dumb Asylum,	Fulton,	259,562.56	56,432.32	140,305
Blind Asylum,	St. Louis,	165,000.00	27,988.00	40,515
Boys' Reformatory,	Boonville,	58,000.00	23,146.88	39,055
Industrial Home for Girls,	Chillicothe,	40,000.00	3,344.56	2,920
Total,		$2,968,811.50	$278,868.45	1,950,775

MONTANA.

The Insane.— The Insane Asylum at Warm Springs, State of Montana, is under the control of Drs. Mitchell and Mussigbrod. In the year 1891, in accordance with Section 8 of "An Act to provide for the care and keeping of the insane," the Governor of the State of Montana advertised by bids for keeping the insane of the State.

At a special meeting of the Board of Commissioners for the Insane, held on the third day of April, 1891, proposals, transmitted to said Board, were canvassed by them, and the bid furnished by Drs. Mitchell and Mussigbrod accepted.

There were 195 inmates at the time of the adoption of the contract, 166 men, 29 women. The number of patients admitted since the third day of April, 1891, up to and including the first day of December, 1892, was 126 males and 26 females. The number discharged, died, and escaped was 95, besides 13 who were removed by their friends.

The cost of the care, custody, keeping, nursing, medical attendance, and clothing of the insane was, prior to the adoption of the above-mentioned contract, $8 per capita per week, which money was paid by the State: whereas the adoption of the contract, which specified the payment of $7 per capita per week, would lessen the expense $1 per week, making a difference of $52 per year for each patient.

The Prison.— On the admission of the Territory of Montana to the Union, the prison, together with twenty acres of ground, and all outbuildings erected thereon, became the property of the State of Monana by gift from the United States. In February, 1890, a contract for the keeping and maintaining of all State prisoners was entered into between the State and Messrs. Conley and McTague at the rate of 70 cents per capita per diem for the first one hundred and 65 cents per capita per diem for all over that number.

We find that the increase of prisoners for the year 1892 is almost double the number of prisoners convicted during the year 1889, while the expense for caring and maintaining them for the month ending Nov. 1, 1892, is more than double that for the month ending Nov. 1, 1889.

Reckoning on this basis, it is fair to presume that the number of

prisoners for the next fiscal year, ending Dec. 1, 1893, will exceed 375, while the expense of keeping the same will probably amount to the sum of $100,000; and the expense for the fiscal year ending Dec. 1, 1894, $125,000.

NEBRASKA.

BY A. W. CLARKE.

The Nebraska legislature closed its biennial session the 1st of April with extremely unsatisfactory results. All efforts failed to provide for a State Board of Charities. The general method of control of our State institutions is bad, and probably worse than in any other State in the Union. They are all under the control of the Board of Public Lands and Buildings, which is composed of the following officers: Commissioner of Public Lands and Buildings, Secretary of State, State Treasurer, and Attorney-General. The Home of the Friendless and the Industrial Home for unfortunate women have, however, special societies, with each a board of trustees to assist in the management of these institutions. The Board of Public Lands and Buildings has entire charge of all the others, and has so much other business it has no time to give the necessary attention to them. The way is opened, therefore, to corruption, cruelty, and criminal mismanagement, which have been the inevitable results for years past.

Tens of thousands of dollars have been squandered and stolen. Institutions have been located where they ought not to have been, through selfish schemes of politicians and land speculators, who sought positions and money rather than the good of the people.

Our last legislature seemed totally incapable of comprehending the situation. They held up their hands in horror when they found out that these sums of money had been squandered and gross mismanagement of institutions had prevailed in the past. They appointed a committee to investigate, and passed resolutions of censure, and then instituted impeachment proceedings against the State officers. They appropriated $15,000 to pay expenses of the impeachment trial. But it seemed never to dawn upon them that such things were the inevitable results of our present method of control. Our State con-

stitution prohibits the creation of any additional State officers, and makes it impossible that a State Board of Charities should be constituted. Our last legislature refused to do anything towards a change in the constitution; and things must go on, therefore, as they have been going until there is a denser population in the State, and the people realize the necessity of choosing law-makers who are not unprincipled office-seekers.

State Penitentiary.— A recent visit to the Nebraska penitentiary revealed a condition of things in the building which was a matter of great surprise. The building is in a fearful condition. The floors are worn out. As one walks across the warden's office, the boards creak under his feet, and in places sink down from one-half to three-fourths of an inch, so that one is in danger of going through the floor. The plastering is off from the ceiling of the chapel. The walls are black from smoke and from water that has run down from the roof. The wards occupied by prisoners are gloomy, and as unhomelike and unpleasant as can well be imagined,— plastering off from the ceiling of the leaking roof, the laths black and decayed by years of exposure. The floor is rough; and there are great cracks between the boards in which the dust and dirt of years have accumulated, which cannot be cleaned out, and where vermin have every chance of seclusion.

No money has been appropriated for four years past to make repairs upon this building. It is a shame and disgrace that a building should be allowed to remain in such an uncivilized condition.

There seems to be no idea in the minds of our law-makers of reformation connected with prison life. It is a penal institution, but should also be reformatory. The surroundings there are such that the moral effect is anything but uplifting. As a matter of fact, prisoners go out of the institutions with such bitterness in their hearts and cursing upon their lips that there seems to be little hope of their reformation afterwards.

The ideas of charity, human kindness, and Christian principles of reformation and moral elevation, seem to have no place whatever in connection with this institution. The only thing prominent there is the contract labor system. Every prisoner is required to work in the shop or factory where it is possible for him to make the largest returns to the contractor. When the hard day's labor is ended, he is required to spend the rest of the time amid the uncivilized surroundings of the miserable building.

It is now well known that a vast amount of mismanagement in this institution and inhuman treatment in the dark cell have prevailed during the past years. These are inevitable results of our method of control, there being no State Board of Charities.

TABLE

SHOWING THE NUMBER OF PRISONERS RECEIVED INTO AND DISCHARGED (AND HOW) FROM THE PENITENTIARY IN EACH YEAR FROM ITS ESTABLISHMENT, FEB. 22, 1869, TO AND INCLUDING NOV. 30, 1892.

Year ending November 30.	Received.	Discharged.	Pardoned.	Commuted.	Escaped.	Recaptured.	Discharged on Habeas Corpus.	Sentence reduced by Supreme Court.	Remanded for New Trial.	Suicided.	Killed.	Died Natural Death.	Number Prisoners Nov. 30 each year.
1869	18												18
1870	29		12										35
1871	24	1	16	3	11	2							36
1872	26	2	17	7									40
1873	22	11	1	6									45
1874	29	11	4	4	2	2			1			1	54
1875	45	22	2	4							1		72
1876	46	35	3	4						1		1	78
1877	70	30	5	2								1	117
1878	63	46	1	2								1	132
1879	92	40	1		1							1	184
1880	79	59			1				1			2	196
1881	74	69	1		3							1	197
1882	76	62				1							212
1883	71	72	1									1	209
1884	107	52			3	1			1	2			259
1885	137	67	3		6	3			1			4	318
1886	138	117	2		3	4			6			5	328
1887	163	133	6	8	1				5		1	4	334
1888	153	133	2	6	3	2	1		1	1		4	338
1889	200	138	5	8		2		1	8		1		379
1890	194	158	8	14					3			2	387
1891	179	174	9	15	2	2		1	5			2	364
1892	167	171	8	23			1		6		1	1	316

Hospital for the Insane, Lincoln.— Nature of work carried on: for care and treatment of acute patients. Date of establishment: by legislative enactments, taking effect 1873. Cost of buildings: approximately $350,000. Size of building: main or hospital building, 60 × 368 feet, 4 stories, stone. Capacity: 175 males, 175 females; total, 350. Cost of maintenance per capita: about $243 yearly.

How maintained: by legislative appropriation from different tax levies. Method of general control: under "Board of Public Lands and Buildings," consisting of State officers. Specific control: under a superintendent appointed by the governor.

Number admitted in 20 years, 2,940. Number admitted in 1892, 200. Number recovered in 20 years, 1,171. Number recovered in 1892, 67. Number in institution in beginning of 1892, 346. Number remaining at close of 1892, 273. Total number of days' board, 1892.

Year.	In Hospital December.	Number admitted.	Number treated.	Recovered.	Improved.	Unimproved.	Not Insane.	Not accounted for.	Escaped.	Died.	Transferred.	Remaining at Close of Year
1871 . .		87	87	8	3	1	1	12	5	1		56
1872 . .	56	29	85	20	5	4	2		5	5		49
1873 . .	49	38	87	14	10	2	1	1	1	2		56
1874 . .	56	17	73	15	6				1	5		46
1875 . .	46	46	92	20	4	5				2		61
1876 . .	61	72	133	30	5	1			1	3		93
1877 . .	93	52	145	24	6	2			1	13		99
1878 . .	99	83	182	38	11	1			1	11		120
1879 . .	120	117	237	42	18	2	1			14		160
1880 . .	160	114	274	44	11	7	4			15		193
1881 . .	193	124	317	48	16	6				17		230
1882 . .	230	164	394	71	18	6			1	25		273
1883 . .	273	206	479	74	47	52			1	23		282
1884 . .	282	204	486	74	22	10				20		360
1885 . .	360	185	545	81	33	37				36		358
1886 . .	358	202	460	97	46	19	1			21		374
1887 . .	374	202	576	96	19	22	4		4	31		399
1888 . .	399	219	619	72	21	8	2		2	25	97	392
1889 . .	392	194	586	72	30	5	6		2	19	131	309
1890 . .	309	201	513	83	22	2	2		1	32	86	326
1891 . .	326	189	519	81	19	41	1			27		346
1892 . .	346	200	550	67	21	40	2			31	100	273

The Asylum for the Incurable Insane.— The asylum for the incurable insane is located at Hastings, Neb. There is only one other institution, we believe, of this kind in the country; and in our judgment there never ought to have been one founded. There are many and serious objections to it. Many of the inmates are depressed by the knowledge that they are judged incurable, and sent off to an institution provided for the hopeless cases. The friends of the patients are also displeased with having such a sentence pronounced

upon them. Also upon the grounds of economy it should not have been established. Wards could have been provided near the acute patients, or in buildings upon the same grounds separate from each other, and thus have saved a great deal of expense.

The location at Hastings was secured through political influence and land speculators; and the people of the community want it to remain in character just as it is, because the great majority of insane patients are pronounced chronic and incurable, and already this institution has the largest number of inmates of any in the State, and within a short period will probably have two or three times as many patients as either of the others. The building is well situated, and its construction was planned after the best models in this country. It is constructed on the dormitory system, which is a great improvement over the old system, and, while the cottage system may be better, yet this is such a great improvement upon the old that we shall not expect to adopt the cottage system for a great many years yet, at least.

In the "Associate Ward" the patients are brought together during the day from two of the sleeping wards adjoining. This "Associate Ward" receives light and ventilation from outside windows on both sides of the ward. The sun, therefore, shines in the wards a considerable proportion of each day. The sleeping wards are constructed, as far as light and ventilation are concerned, upon exactly the same plan. From twenty to forty patients sleep in one ward with little or no disturbance every night. It occasionally becomes necessary to put a patient into one of the smaller rooms, which are at the end of the sleeping ward.

The building is so well lighted and ventilated that it has an air of cheerfulness.

In the wards for women are pictures, plants, and flowers; and everything appears homelike, the effects of which must be good for the patients.

Asylum for the Chronic Insane, Hastings.— Nature of work carried on: care and treatment of chronic cases. The dormitory and associate dining-room system has been chosen as preferable for this class of patients. Each dormitory contains 25 single beds, and each dining-room (one for the male and one for the female patients) has a seating capacity for 200. Size of building: a three-story brick structure, with stone basement and five wings in rear extending from

main building (each 30 × 110 feet.) Capacity of building: 200 males and 200 females. Cost of building: $134,988.63. Cost of maintenance, per capita, per day: $0.66. Total cost of institution from its founding (Dec. 29, 1888) till April 1, 1893: $380,298.63. Total cost of current expenses for 1892: $47,475.63. Total cost from Jan. 1, 1893, till April 1, 1893: $15,986.08. Total number of days' board of inmates during the past year: 77,745. Cost per capita, per annum: $240.90. Nurses for patients: experienced attendants. Restraints for patients: Humane Restraint Company mitts and muff. Number of acres belonging to the institution: 160. Cash receipts from farm and stock the past year: $2,484.99.

Institute for the Deaf and Dumb, Omaha.— Nature of work: education of the deaf and dumb. Date of establishment: 1850. Cost of buildings: about $88,000. Capacity: 150. Cost of maintenance per capita: $201.51 per year. How maintained: by direct legislative appropriation. Control: State Board of Public Lands and Buildings, consisting of State officers. Specific control: principal and steward, appointed by governor. Number admitted to date: 347. Number at close of 1892: 140. Operating expenses of 1892: $34,000.

Aural instruction of the semi-deaf is a special feature of the work of this school.

State Industrial School, Kearney.— This institution is organized and carried on under what is known as the "cottage system." Each family is assigned a building, and is under the direct supervision of a competent teacher, who is designated the "family manager." He is not only their teacher, but their guardian. He is responsible to the superintendent for their conduct and general care at all hours of the day.

So far as possible, the inmates are arranged with reference to their size and age. One-half of the inmates attend school four hours in the morning, and work in the afternoon. The other half work in the forenoon, and attend school four hours in the afternoon.

About one hour additional instruction and study is required in the evening.

The cottage system has many advantages from the fact that it is more like the home than any other system. It places the inmates more upon their honor, and inculcates more of the spirit of self-reliance. It allows more freedom and larger means of physical enjoy-

ment. It dispenses with everything of a prison nature, and substitutes good parental discipline therefor. Some one looks after the personal welfare of each inmate, so that none need be neglected. It makes family government, educational advantages, physical and moral training the foundation upon which to build up true manhood.

The children are placed in homes, mostly among farmers. They are carefully looked after, and constant watch is kept over them afterwards by the manager of the institution.

The school paper, the *Industrial School Courier*, has been of great value in the work. The wisdom of having separate institutions for boys and girls has been demonstrated.

The Industrial School for Girls is at Geneva. The opinion quite generally prevails that no charity institution of our State has been so well managed as our Industrial School at Kearney. This is attributed to the fact that we have the right man as superintendent. He has been permitted to stay there long enough to carry into effect his carefully prepared plans, and we earnestly hope that Mr. J. T. Mallalieu may be retained for many years. Since the foundation of this institution in 1881, 850 girls have been received. 575 of them have been placed, most of them, in homes in the country, where they are doing well. The average population of the school the past year has been 225. The sanitary condition is excellent. There has been but one death since the institution was founded. Industrial training is made the prominent feature.

The Home for the Friendless, Lincoln.— This institution is the place where orphans and neglected little ones are cared for as tenderly as under the parental roof, where love and sunshine and human affection abound. It was founded in 1882 by Christian women, and for several years successively was conducted from private donations. The importance of the home and the necessity for it became well known throughout the State; and those in charge of it had managed affairs so well that it was not difficult to induce the legislature to take it up, and to make it one of the State institutions. Since that time there has been no failure in appropriating the needed funds for carrying it on. As a State institution, it is under the Board of Public Lands and Buildings, but differs from the others in this: the original society has been perpetuated, and there is a board of women, having in charge all departments of the work, holding regular monthly meet

ings and appointing various committees, who give a vast amount of time in the management of all the different departments.

There are auxiliaries also of this society in various parts of the State, who send in toys and donations, and send delegates to the annual meeting of the State society. Mrs. J. B. Hoel, the present superintendent, has for the past three years given her time and strength to this work; and success has crowned her efforts beyond expectation of the most hopeful.

Home was opened in 1892. Object: to give shelter and protection to homeless women and children of Nebraska, and to place children in permanent homes. Management: under a board of directors, which acts in co-operation with the Board of Public Lands and Buildings of the State. It is not sectional nor political nor sectarian. Cost: grounds and buildings, $40,100. Average daily inmates: 135. Cost per capita daily for inmates: $0.27. The work: 61 children placed in homes last year; 354 placed out since home was opened; from 175 to 200 admitted yearly; 50 given temporary shelter annually; 216 deaths since home was opened; 70 out of 90 counties have sent inmates; 1,690 have been admitted since home was opened.

GOVERNMENT AND SUPERVISION OF CHARITABLE AND PENAL INSTITUTIONS.

1. *State Prisons.*— General control vested in the Board of Public Lands and Buildings. Specific control vested in a warden appointed by the governor.

2. *Workhouses and County Jails and Almshouses.*— General control of almshouses vested in the county board of commissioners or supervisors, which acts practically as a board of trustees. Specific control vested in superintendents appointed by the board. Specific control of jails vested in the sheriff of the county who appoints a jailer.

3. *Hospitals for the Insane.*— General control vested in the Board of Public Lands and Buildings. Specific control vested in superintendent appointed by the governor.

4. *Reformatories for Juvenile Offenders.*— General control vested in the Board of Public Lands and Buildings. Specific control vested in superintendent appointed by the governor.

5. *Reformatories for Adult Offenders.*— None in the State.

6. *Private Charitable Institutions.*— General control, none. Specific control vested in boards of trustees, chosen under the general charitable acts of the State.

7. *Support of Institutions.*— State prisons, by legislative appropriations; and partial hospitals for the insane, by legislative appropriations and partially by weekly payments, per capita, by the counties which send inmates. County jails and almshouses supported by county taxation. Private charitable institutions supported from endowments and popular subscriptions.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER STATE CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total Cost of Institution to date.	Operat'g Expenses of Institutions for Fiscal Year ending Jan. 1, 1893.	Total No. of Days' Board of Inmates during Fiscal Year endir g Jan. 1, 1893.
Nebraska Hospital for the Insane .	Lincoln.	$350,000.00	$89,000.00	112,785
State Penitentiary	Lincoln.	450,000.00	50,299.20	123,248
State Industrial School	Kearney.	225,000.00	33,691.46	51,240
Deaf and Dumb Institute	Omaha.	88,000.00	34,000.00	36,200
Home for the Friendless	Lincoln.	40,100.00	18,000.00	49,275
Asylum for the Chronic Insane . .	Hastings.	134,988.63	47,475.63	77,745
Norfolk Hospital for the Insane .	Norfolk.	154,341.25	52,763.34	70,205
Soldiers' and Sailors' Home . . .	Grand Island.	50,960.00	31,209.75	28,652
Nebraska Institute for Feeble-minded Youth	Beatrice.	68,988.00	33,691.46	51,240
Nebraska Industrial Home . . .	Milford.	46,000.00	26,000.00	17,232
Girls' Industrial School	Geneva.	46,847.55	12,952.45	26,357
Institution for the Blind	Nebraska City.	30,700.00	300,000.00	31,075

Omaha has a patrol box and wagon system, employing two wagons, with three teams of horses, both located at the police station. The total number of signal boxes is 37, which are located within one-eighth of mile of each other, in the factory and tenement districts of the city, and more sparsely in other portions.

Lincoln has no patrol box, but has one wagon and one team.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

List of the charitable and correctional institutions maintained from the provincial treasury: —

Institutions.	*Year Organized.*	*Annual Appropriation.*
Deaf and Dumb Institution (*partly*)*	1883	
Lunatic Asylum,		$40,000 †
Blind Asylum, Halifax, N.S.,		900
Boys' Industrial Home,	1893	2,000
Public Hospital, St. John,		3,000
Victoria Hospital, Fredericton,	1887	600
St. Basile Hospital, Victoria Co.,		150
Chatham Hospital,		300
Campbellion Hospital,		150

The dependent blind are kept in the Blind Asylum, Halifax, N.S.

No aid is granted from the State treasury to private institutions of any sort.

A Boys' Industrial Home in St. John, N.B., has been organized.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

List of the charitable and correctional institutions maintained from the State treasury: —

Institutions.	*Year Organized.*	*Approximate Value of Plant.*	*Annual Appropriation.*
‡ Asylum for the Insane,	1839	$150,000	
State Prison,	1810	200,000	$10,000
Industrial School,	1851	80,000	10,000

$15,000 is appropriated annually for pupils at Deaf and Dumb, Blind, and Feeble-minded Institutions.

* Guaranteed on building $1,000 a year for eleven years. † About.

‡ Annual appropriation varied. This institution receives fees from foreign patients, and has trust funds.

NEW JERSEY.

BY EZRA M. HUNT, M.D., SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF HEALTH OF NEW JERSEY.

The first systematic effort made in New Jersey to secure facts as to the condition of almshouses and some other charitable institutions was that of 1866, when a sanitary commission, of which Dr. E. M. Hunt was president, sought to gather facts which would bear on the prevention of pauperism, and which would show our full duty as to the insane and idiotic, who were not yet cared for in the one asylum which had been provided. This and other circulars and inquiries served to awaken public attention. It resulted in no formal legislation. Although this commission was temporary, it kept alive some interest in the subject until another commission in 1874 drew still fuller attention, especially to the sanitary needs of all charitable and penal institutions. It was with this moderate but yet valuable introduction that the State Board of Health, which was formed in 1877, had embodied in its law provision for the sanitary care and oversight of all public institutions.

In 1873 the provision for penal and charitable care was as follows: one State prison, inmates about 554; one penitentiary in Hudson County; one jail in each of the twenty-one counties; one reform school organized July, 1867, inmates about 244. Before this for the dependent classes we had the New Jersey State Lunatic Asylum, organized 1848, inmates about 653; almshouses in over half the counties known as county houses; in other counties township houses; in some townships no buildings, but the poor "farmed out"; and in two or three larger cities city almshouses.

The dates of the establishment of important State or local institutions are as follows: —

Burlington County Almshouse,	1800
New Jersey State Insane Asylum, Trenton,	1848
Salem County Asylum,	1867
Cumberland County Asylum,	1870
Girls' Industrial School, Trenton,	1872
Morris Plains State Asylum,	1876
Camden County Asylum,	1879
Essex County Asylum,	1881

School for Deaf-mutes, Trenton, ... 1883
Home for Disabled Soldiers, Kearney, ... 1888
Home for Feeble-minded Women, Vineland, ... 1888
Home for Feeble-minded Children, Vineland, ... 1888

One of the first changes to take place was the partial separation of the insane in almshouses into small asylums, or separate buildings, just adjacent to the almshouse. These, as a rule, did not embrace the harmless idiotic or epileptic, but such as had been returned from the State asylum as incurable, and because of its crowded condition. The State made some allowance for the keeping of these in a home asylum. Three of these asylums — namely, those of Hudson, Essex, and Camden Counties — are large enough to secure orderly methods and attendance, comparing favorably in some respects with the State institutions. Passaic County might also be included. Even these, however, are too subject to the fluctuations of politics,— a criticism from which our State institutions are not wholly exempt.

The smaller county insane asylums are carefully watched, and, as a rule, fairly well kept. They are only five in number, and the system is not to be commended. There have been from time to time exceptional cases of abuse in these asylums; and the almshouse system has been very defective, and serious conditions have been found in many counties and townships.

The State Board of Health, while not having the powers of a board of charities and correction, has been able to correct many abuses and to exercise a wide restraint. Feeling its powers inadequate, and regarding its direct care of the health of the State and of sanitary conditions as a sufficient duty, it advocated the formation of a council of charities and corrections. This council was formed in 1882, with some excellent provisions. But it had only $1,000 at its command, and, so far as we know, had not, and has not had since, among its members any who have devoted themselves to this interest. As a result, it has made only formal reports, and has never done much, if any, efficient service. In 1881 a State voluntary association was started in Morris County, New Jersey; but it was not until 1886 that it attempted, or secured, recognition in a legislative or State capacity. This was chiefly in the direction of authority to visit institutions, to make reports to the legislature, and to receive $600 a year as a State appropriation. It has since been limited as to

its right to visit State institutions, and so far as pecuniary assistance is concerned would probably have done better to have retained its voluntary features. There are branch societies, more or less efficient, in nine counties; and some valuable work has been done. These branch societies are in most cases quite independent of the Charities Aid Association, and have their own lines and methods of work.

During the past ten years there has been a steady increase of attention to our charitable and penal institutions. The asylums are built according to improved methods. Many new jails and almshouses have been constructed, and others reconstructed.

As the State Board of Health compares its visitations of 1892 and 1893 with those of 1877 and 1878, when it began its work, most notable sanitary improvements are apparent. There has been a general attention to improvements in charitable and correctional care. The sexes are more fully separated, children are comparatively rare in our almshouses, the reform schools relieve our jails and prisons of the younger class of criminals. A parole system has been adopted by the State prison, but it has only been in operation a little over a year, and the law is imperfect.

There is still much lack of a careful study of the causes and conditions of insanity, pauperism, and crime, and of power and provision for disposing of individual cases, so that inmates shall have the benefit of industrial training and reformatory methods. There is not a sufficient effort to select out cases which are at present consigned to chronic detention and to rid our almshouses of those who should be self-supporting or supported by their friends.

There is, however, such improvement in general as is in the highest degree encouraging. Yet very much more might be done by legal enactment, by pecuniary provision, and by the wise work of voluntary associations.

Our chief embarrassment arises from the degraded populations of our larger cities, much supplemented by an influx from New York and Philadelphia. The looseness of our laws as to liquor license and gambling allows the coming in of a constant supply of "lewd fellows of the baser sort." We are still guilty of the strange blunder of manufacturing insanity, pauperism, and crime by adequate and well-defined measures for sustaining drunkenness, betting, immorality, and vice.

We must continue to do what we can to minimize the results of loose education in ethics and morals. We must continue to offset and alleviate the results of our methods of vicious production until we learn that prevention is better and more feasible than an attempt to overcome results. Yet we must ever seek to neutralize these results as we meet them in society, in tramp life, and in the various institutions of charity, punishment, and reform.

We reckon the whole number of inmates in almshouses to be 2,600. The almshouse list does not include outdoor relief from poor fund or voluntary help of hospitals, orphan asylums, and private charities.

NEW MEXICO.

List of the charitable and correctional institutions maintained from the State treasury: —

Institutions.	*Year Organized.*	*Approximate Value of Plant.*	*Annual Appropriation*
Territorial Penitentiary,	1884	$200,000	$30,330
St. Vincent's Hospital, Santa Fé,	1870	80,000	6,000
Grant County Hospital, Silver City,	1880	10,000	3,000
Sisters of Mercy Hospital, Silver City,	1880	10,000	3,000
Orphan School, Santa Fé,	1891	8,000	5,000
Ladies' Relief Society, Las Vegas,	1889	10,000	3,000
Deaf, Dumb, and Blind, Santa Fé,	1887	8,000	5,000
New Mexico Insane Asylum,	1891	45,000	17,500

There are no poorhouses in the Territory.

NEW YORK.

BY MISS JULIA S. HOAG.

No sooner did the statute of 1867 creating a State Board of Charities for New York become effective than measures were inaugurated to perfect a system of statistics; and by 1872 the system had reached such a degree of perfection that the tables of that year, in comparison with those of 1892, will form the chief basis of the work which follows.

The Children.— One of the most interesting and satisfactory comparisons between then and now is in relation to children in county poorhouses and city almshouses.

In the second annual report of the New York State Board of Charities, as the result of his first personal visitations and painstaking classification, the secretary of the Board, then as now Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, reported 1,222 children under sixteen years of age in the poorhouses of the State, and 1,039 in the city almshouses, 630 of these being found in the New York City almshouse. The secretary referred deprecatingly in this report to the indiscriminate and unrestricted association of all classes in these institutions,— aged, children, insane, idiotic, debased, and profane of both sexes,— and made the following deduction, which is substantiated by many years of labor and experience: "Familiarized from early life with nearly every species of deformity, infirmity, depravity, and vice, it cannot reasonably be expected that any great portion of them will ever rise above the associations among which they are reared."

In 1872, at the close of the fiscal year there were 679 children under sixteen years of age reported in the poorhouses of the State, and 1,386 in the city almshouses, 1,037 of whom were in the New York City almshouse. Their associations were, of necessity, with the most wretched, depraved, and vicious. Beginning life thus, what hope could there be that even any small proportion of these would have either the desire or the courage to break loose from their associations, and become respected and useful citizens? Like perpetuates like. The evil would not be arrested in the extinction of these 2,065 by natural death, but a few years would see their descendants to the second and third generation, perpetuating just such stock as themselves.

This profound stumbling-block not only attracted the attention of the State Board of Charities, but Governor Hoffman, in his annual messages for 1871 and 1872, and his successor, Governor Dix, called the attention of the respective legislatures to this startling evil, the indiscriminate association of children with adult paupers. The Board of Charities also continued to direct the public mind to this serious fact in each annual report. Superintendents of the poor, keepers of poorhouses, and boards of supervisors were urged to make provision for their dependent children elsewhere than in the county poorhouses and city almshouses; and, as a gratifying

result of this persistent importunity, the number of such children very gradually decreased until, from 2,261 found in poorhouses and almshouses in 1868, the number in 1874 was reported as 2,088. In 1874 Hon. William P. Letchworth, the then and long-time president of the State Board of Charities, made an exhaustive study and investigation of this subject, involving visitations and much correspondence, the result of which was a statute which became operative on the first day of January, 1876, closing the poorhouses and almshouses to all healthy and intelligent children over two years of age. The report of Commissioner Letchworth to the Board regarding his examination of the children maintained in the Randall's Island Nursery, which was, in fact, the department for children under the almshouse system, developed an entire disregard for the present or future welfare of the children in this institution, which was painful in the extreme. These were in continual and intimate association with adult criminals of the worst type, the effects of which contamination could never be wholly effaced, though the children should finally be placed under wholesome influences. Added to this was a fearful disregard for proper sanitary conditions. Contagious diseases were spread by carelessness in the laundry work, by insufficient supply of towels, by inattention in the matter of sponges, cloths, etc.; and, as a most natural result, scarlet fever, ophthalmia, and similar epidemics, when once they gained entrance among the children, never ceased their havoc until many deaths or serious permanent afflictions set their seal to these destructive influences. These conditions were entirely changed when the act referred to became effective; and, although the number of children in the care of the Department of Charities of New York seems large, it either represents infants or the defective classes, such as are not capable of much, if any, improvement. At the close of the fiscal year 1892 the whole number of children reported in the poorhouses of the State was 101, of whom 19 were between two and sixteen years, and were temporary inmates awaiting homes. The number in city almshouses was 803, of whom 673 were in care of the New York Department of Charities, 206 as infants, and 467 as idiots, epileptics, or otherwise diseased.

In its early history the State Board of Charities met with little interest or sympathy in charitable work, especially that in connection with poorhouses, visitors being such chiefly from motives of

curiosity. This, however, has been greatly changed during the past few years. The commissioners of the board name visitors of institutions in their respective judicial districts; and the State Charities Aid Association also has a large list of duly appointed visitors in different counties, and much good has thus been effected.

Perhaps no more rapid strides in improvement of methods, with gratifying and satisfactory results, have been made in the State of New York during the course of twenty years than those having relation to the instruction and care of the deaf, the feeble-minded, and the blind.

The Deaf.— The number of institutions specially for the training and care of the deaf and dumb in 1872 was three, with a population of 667. In the county poorhouses there were 57, and in the city almshouses 10 of these defectives, making a total of 734 in public care in the State. In 1892 the number of special institutions for the deaf had been increased to 8 or virtually 10, since one institution has two branches, with a population of 1,297. The number in the poorhouses was 41, and in the city almshouses 5, making a total of 1,343 under care at the close of the year. Those in poorhouses and almshouses were adults and unteachable. *Dumb* is now an obsolete word in the reports of the visiting committee to the New York State institutions for the deaf. Pupils are no longer classed or considered as dumb, per force, but only by neglect of training. If, at the close of another period of twenty years, scientists will only discover as sure healing for deafness as they have found for dumbness, then, indeed, will the millennium be near at hand.

In association with this peculiar affliction, the names of Peet and Gallaudet will pass into history with loving reverence for their long and valuable services in the amelioration of the trials of the deaf. Mr. Peet has recently retired from service. The Gallaudet Home for Aged and Infirm Deaf-mutes at Poughkeepsie, N.Y., founded in 1885, will perpetuate the name of Dr. Gallaudet.

The Blind.— The same two State institutions for the blind as now were in existence in the State of New York twenty years ago, with an average population then of 305. The number of blind in poorhouses was then 143, in city almshouses 120, and in the Home for the Blind, New York City, 35, a total of 603, one-half of whom were

under special instruction. In 1892 the total number of blind in institutions was reported as 710, an increase of but 107 in twenty years. Of these, 337 were in the State educational institutions, 61 unteachable adults in the Home for the Blind, New York City, 153 in county poorhouses, and 159 in the city almshouses, these also adults. The reported increase of this class of unfortunates is small, and, in comparison with the large increase of insanity in the same period, exceedingly gratifying. This is probably due to the improved understanding and methods of oculists; and the fact that their theories are widely spread and practically applied to the construction of modern school buildings, factories, and nearly all public places where people congregate in numbers. The methods of instruction of the blind have improved with the years; and the unfortunates *see* with finger-ends, with alert ears, and with every nerve at a healthful tension. Life to them is by no means a burden or a useless toy which they anxiously wait to throw aside.

In 1890, according to the United States Census, the whole number of blind in the State of New York was 4,389, of whom 2,370 were males, and 2,019 females.

The Feeble-minded.— As in 1872, there is but one institution for the instruction of feeble-minded children in the State of New York. Then known as the New York Asylum for Idiots at Syracuse, it is now dignified by a less appallingly significant title, the Syracuse State Institution for Feeble-minded Children. In 1872 the number of pupils was 145, and in 1892 510. The feeble-minded were then, as now, very carefully, patiently, and laboriously cared for. However small the spark of light may be lying dormant in the torpid brain, it is fanned into all the brilliancy of which it is possibly capable by intelligent, painstaking teachers; and life is made more to these most unfortunate of unfortunates than mere brute existence. It is not possible to stand utterly still in well-doing; but in memory of such honored men as Dr. Howe and Dr. Wilbur, pioneers in this apparently thankless work, comparison of methods seems out of place.

Epileptics.— There is not, nor has there ever been, a separate institution for epileptics in the State of New York, this class being provided for in poorhouses, almshouses, insane hospitals, and other institutions. The number of epileptics in the poorhouses of the State in 1872 was 84, and in the almshouses 202, total 286. In

1892 the number in poorhouses was 191, and in almshouses 348, total 539.

For several years past the subject of an institution in this State to be expressly devoted to the care of this unfortunate class has been agitated, and the project has been so far developed that an act providing for the selection of a site and plan for an epileptic colony similar to Bielefeld was approved by the governor May 12, 1892. This bill passed both branches of the legislature of 1893; but for reasons assigned, which were chiefly prudential and financial, it failed to meet the entire approval of the governor, and his signature was withheld. The project was so widely and highly approved by the best element in philanthropic circles throughout the State that hope will survive for the revival of interest in the cause and better success in results in some not distant future.

Inebriates.— In 1872 the State Inebriate Asylum at Binghamton, N.Y., had not only name, but local habitation, and reported 81 patients at the close of the year. In 1879 this institution merged into the insane asylum now called Binghamton State Hospital.

The only public institution in the State now for the care of inebriates is the Inebriates' Home, Fort Hamilton, L.I., which reported 166 inmates Oct. 1, 1892.

Insane.— When the New York State Board of Charities was fully inaugurated, and work so far progressed that a report of any statistical value could be made, in the year 1868, the whole number of insane in the custody of the State was then returned as 4,346, of whom 1,528 were in county poorhouses. At this period the Willard Asylum for Insane was nearly completed, and the report of the secretary urged the removal of the chronic insane from the poorhouses to this institution as soon as it should be opened. Considering some legal construction of the wording of the act, the report of the Board for 1868 refers to the insane "who are suffering most, who are now in chains or lying in dungeons or confined in cells, experiencing all the worst evils of the county-house system," as those who should first be removed from the poorhouses to the new asylum.

In the report for 1872 the number of insane was reported 6,775; and with a sure, steady, and marked increase, from year to year, entirely satisfactory causes for which have baffled alienists, the total

number reported to the State Board of Charities Oct. 1, 1892, was 17,457. In the report for 1872 the Board showed 1,093 inmates in the then three State insane asylums proper, the Utica, the Willard, and the Hudson River; and in 1892 this class of institutions, increased to eight, reported a population of 7,484. Change of title has occurred by legislative act, and the insane asylums of 1872 have become the State hospitals of 1892.

The county poorhouses and county asylums, in 1872, contained 1,319 insane, and the city almshouses and asylums 2,233. In 1892 the number in county poorhouses and county asylums was 857, and in the New York and Kings County asylums 7,887, the decrease being the result of the State care act of 1890, by which all insane are to be removed from poorhouse care to hospital care as rapidly as accommodations can be provided.

The list of five private asylums for the insane, with 312 inmates in 1872, has increased to seventeen in 1892, with a population of 881. The number of this class placed in private institutions has not increased in proportion to the increase of the number of institutions for their care and treatment. Many of these new institutions, however, make provision for very small numbers.

Twenty years ago there was no general superintendence of private asylums. The second annual report of the New York State Board of Charities directed special attention to this fact, deprecating it; and the sixth annual report again called attention to the subject, and referred to the courteous invitations of Dr. George Cook, of Brigham Hall, Canandaigua, Dr. Brown, of Bloomingdale Asylum, New York, and Dr. Barstow, of Sanford Hall, Flushing, to visit and inspect the asylums of which these gentlemen were the representative heads.

In 1872 the State Charities Aid Association was organized in the city of New York, a body composed of both men and women, ardent workers in the interest of all classes of poor and unfortunate, both within and without institutional walls; and to this association belongs no small credit for the relief of insane in poorhouses.

In 1889 the State Commission in Lunacy was established, to supersede the office of State Commissioner in Lunacy, which office was created in 1873. The present commission is composed of three members; and the special work accomplished by it in the brief period of its existence is its contribution to the passage of the State care

act in 1890, an enactment for the removal of all chronic insane from poorhouses to hospital care, which act, however, had passed one branch of the legislature prior to the creation of the commission. The State Charities Aid Association began the agitation of this subject several years in advance of its realization; and, in finally securing the passage of the act, the association received material aid from Hon. Oscar Craig, president of the State Board of Charities, and from the State Commission in Lunacy. The Commission in Lunacy has extended powers over all the institutions for insane in the State, whether public or private.

Among the many assigned causes for the increase in the number of insane from 6,775, in 1872, to 17,457, in 1892, a few may be noted. Some specialists consider the large numbers which represent this increase as apparent, not real. As institutions have opened and progress has been made in the study of insanity, they argue, the really insane members of families, or those who were very peculiar and a thorn of trial to their friends, have been placed in these asylums, and have added largely to the count. Improved methods in securing statistical information have undoubtedly helped to swell the numbers of this class somewhat. The vast increase in the population of the State in the last two decades, from 4,382,759 to 6,513,344, to some minds naturally accounts for the increase in insanity. To others the cause is obvious in the rush in methods of business and the progress of all kinds in this wonderful country of ours, which can stride from lighting streets with oil lamps and travelling by stage coaches to electric lamps as the method of lighting and electric motors for methods of travel, in the memory of less than a generation. The Englishman has his jolly laugh at our expense when he reads the notice tacked upon the busy man's office door: "Gone to dinner. Will be back in half an hour."

Others still attribute the startling increase of insanity to immigration. Not simply to the fact that the actually insane have been dumped here in large numbers,— this haven of rest for all peoples,— but also that many well-intentioned immigrants with healthy bodies and minds, when they reached this country, have become disheartened in the constant struggle and perhaps lack of success, and their mental balance has become disturbed. Many immigrants come from localities in which their ancestors have been enfeebled for a generation or more, and, with this inherited weakness, the trials

of a new country tend to break them down both physically and mentally.

Immigration.— The late honored bishop of Massachusetts, best known and most revered as plain Phillips Brooks, perhaps never spoke more wisely in worldly wisdom than when he said: "If the world, in the great march of the centuries, is going to be richer for the development of a certain national character, built up by a larger type of manhood here, then for the world's sake, for the sake of these very nations that would pour in upon us that which would disturb that development, we have a right to stand guard over it."

In 1872 the number of immigrants arriving at the port of New York was 294,561. In 1892 the number was 374,741, of whom 172,292 declared their permanent destination to be New York. The population of the State of New York, according to the census of 1870, was 4,382,752, and in 1892 6,513,344,— an increase of 2,130,592.

The Board of Charities of New York State began to sound the alarm in respect to the methods by which so large a stream of the objectionable classes was flowing to this country in 1879, since which time it has annually called the attention to the unjust importation of assisted paupers, insane, and other burdensome classes. In 1880, as a result of this influence, a law was passed for the return of such of these persons as should be found lodged in public charitable institutions; and in this way nearly nineteen hundred of such assisted persons have been returned to their inhospitable homes in the twelve years during which the enactment has been effective.

The report of this Board for 1892 again calls special attention to the subject of immigration, and reiterates its recommendations of what would seem to be a practical solution of the matter, by the initiation of a system of consular inspection and local certification as to character of such persons as propose to come across the waters to establish homes in this country.

It is interesting to note that so long ago as 1873, of the paupers supported in whole or in part in the poorhouses and almshouses of the Empire State, 22,331 were classed as native, and 39,599 foreign. The same foreign excess has been maintained through the years intervening to 1892, when the figures were: native, 32,678; foreign, 50,989,— a foreign excess of 18,311. Of the poorhouse and alms-

house population alone, the foreign element has thus increased over 11,000 in twenty years.

University Settlements.— One of the most interesting and valuable efforts in the work of relief and elevation of the poor classes is that of university settlements. It is of English birth. However, our cities have not been slow to take up and elaborate the idea; and we are following closely in the wake of Toynbee Hall, in the Whitechapel district of London, of Professor Drummond's settlement in Glasgow, and others. Chicago has its Hull House, founded in 1889, in an old mansion among the poorer people; Boston has its Andover House, founded in 1891 by graduates of the Andover Theological Seminary; and New York City has its University Settlement Society, which opened a teetotum or club for working men and women, with games, etc., in July, 1892, making a charge of membership fee of twenty-five cents a quarter. In the same month a free art exhibition was opened nightly in notorious Allen Street, with an appreciative attendance each evening of from 1,000 to 1,200. The project in that city has so far passed the experimental stage that an establishment is now about to be erected for the settlement at a cost of $75,000. The founders call this mutual helpfulness, not charity. Such persons as Dr. Stanton Coit, Rev. Dr. Marvin R. Vincent, Hon. Seth Low, and others equally well known give standing to the work in their intimate association with it.

This work, really begun twenty years ago, has made slow but sure and steadfast progress in the decades, and gives great promise for the future in all countries. For this reason it has been considered at length; and it makes, perhaps, the most fitting *finale* to this consideration of work among the masses during the past twenty years.

Institutions under State Control.

Name.	Location.	Total cost of institution to Sept. 30, 1892.	Operating expenses for year ending Sept. 30, 1892.	Whole number of inmates during this year.	Number of inmates, Sept. 30, 1892.
State Prisons:					
Auburn State Prison,	Auburn,	$856,600	$138,200	4,939	1,273
Clinton State Prison,	Dannemora,	880,800	142,600		953
Sing Sing State Prison,	Sing Sing,	721,200	204,100		1,369
Total,		$2,458,600	$484,900	4,939	3,395
State Hospitals for the Insane:					
Utica State Hospital,	Utica,	$830,000	$178,200	1,123	837
Willard State Hospital,	Willard,	1,285,000	326,000	2,510	2,115
Hudson River State Hospital,	Poughkeepsie,	1,896,900	243,300	1,150	861
Middletown State Homœopathic Hospital,	Middletown,	1,004,500	141,100	1,104	854
Buffalo State Hospital,	Buffalo,	1,446,900	125,200	935	625
Binghamton State Hospital,	Binghamton,	661,000	209,900	1,364	1,196
St. Lawrence State Hospital,	Ogdensburg,	1,300,000	130,500	759	595
Rochester State Hospital,	Rochester,	85,000	91,700	490	401
Total,		$8,509,300	$1,485,900	9,435	7,484
Insane Criminals:					
Asylum for Insane Criminals,	Matteawan,	$803,100	$61,600	402	348
Institutions for the Blind:					
New York Institution for the Blind,	New York,	$234,900	$71,000	227	207
New York State Institution for the Blind,	Batavia,	335,600	41,700	157	130
Total,		$570,500	$112,700	384	337
Institution for Deaf:					
New York Institution for Deaf and Dumb,	New York,	$370,000	$93,700	330	296
Institutions for the Feeble-minded:					
Syracuse State Institution for Feeble-minded Children,	Syracuse,	$333,500	$92,600	541	510
State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women,	Newark,	122,500	38,300	377	345
Total,		$456,000	$130,900	918	855
State Reformatories:					
New York State Reformatory,	Elmira,	$1,440,700	$198,500	2,002	1,396
House of Refuge for Women,	Hudson,	160,600	51,700	357	288
*Western House of Refuge for Women,	Albion,	105,200	—	—	—
Total,		$1,706,500	$250,200	2,359	1,684
Jewish Reformatories:					
New York House of Refuge,	Randall's Island,	$500,000	$94,900	809	500
The State Industrial School,	Rochester,	947,100	130,600	1,281	761
Total,		$947,100	$225,500	2,090	1,261
Institution for Soldiers and Sailors:					
New York State Soldiers' and Sailors' Home,	Bath,	$270,500	$145,500	1,698	809

*The Western House of Refuge for Women at Albion is not yet opened.

NORTH CAROLINA.

BY REV. W. C. WILLSON.

While North Carolina has not made the progress so much desired by earnest philanthropists, yet it is with pleasure I note considerable improvement and encouraging prospects of more rapid progress. We have at this time about 1,800 insane, 1,200 convicts, 800 deaf and dumb, and about the same number of blind. For the insane twenty years ago, in 1873, we had only one asylum at Raleigh. In 1893 we have one in Raleigh, one at Morganton, and one at Goldsboro for colored, with 280 patients; the three caring for about 1,000 persons. For the deaf and dumb we had one asylum at Raleigh. In 1893 we have a separate building at Raleigh for the colored people, and in it 63 persons; also a building at Morganton for the deaf and dumb only, with a capacity for 250, to be opened by September, while the blind are to remain in Raleigh. We had one orphan asylum founded in 1872 by the Grand Lodge of Masons; and in 1873 the State made its first appropriation of $5,000, and ten years afterwards increased it to $10,000 annually. In 1893 we have about 225 children there, also a colored asylum at Oxford for which the State appropriates $2,000. We have in 1893 an orphanage at Thomasville (Baptists), with about 150; one at Charlotte (Episcopal), with 50 or 60; also a private hospital by one church (Episcopal), with about 40. The Presbyterians have an asylum at Barium Springs; and others of similar character are at Asheville, Raleigh, and other towns. Our convicts are worked on railroads, canals, and other public works; but most of them are employed on a farm leased by the State. We have a law enabling counties to work them on public roads, but as yet few counties have so employed them. We have in our penitentiary 56 convicts under fifteen years of age, and, I blush to say, no reform school. We hoped to have such a school, but failed in the last legislature. But the sentiment is growing so rapidly in favor of such a school that we feel sure to have such a law passed at our next legislature.

NORTH DAKOTA.

List of the charitable and correctional institutions maintained from the State treasury: —

Institutions.	*Year Organized.*	*Approximate Value of Plant.*	*Annual Appropriation.*
North Dakota Penitentiary at Bismarck,	1883	$75,000	$35,000
North Dakota Hospital for Insane, Jamestown,	1885	150,000	70,000
Soldiers' Home, Lisbon,	1890	25,000	10,000

Boys are sentenced to the Reform School kept at Plankinton, South Dakota Reform School. 10 at present.

No aid is granted from the State treasury to private institutions of any sort.

An appropriation of $10,000 was made by the legislature in 1893 for starting a reform school.

NOVA SCOTIA.

List of charitable and correctional institutions maintained from the State treasury: —

Institutions.	*Year Organized.*	*Approximate Value of Plant.*	*Annual Appropriation.*
Hospital for Insane,	1859	$750,000*	$65,000
Victoria General Hospital,	1865	$120,000	$40,000
Nurses' Home,†	1890	$3,000‡	

None of the dependants of the State are kept in institutions of other States.

Aid is granted from the State treasury to the School for the Blind and to the Deaf and Dumb Institution, about $1,500 and $3,000 respectively, per annum, according to the number of pupils.

* Including buildings.

† Annual appropriation is a nominal amount, as it is an adjunct of the hospital.

‡ Exclusive of building.

OHIO.

BY JOSEPH P. BYERS.

The history of the penal, reformatory, and benevolent institutions of the State of Ohio for the past twenty years is essentially the history of the Board of State Charities. Then, as now, the institutions for the insane, idiotic, deaf, and dumb, blind, soldiers' and sailors' orphans, and for juvenile delinquents and the criminal, were under State control, their management abreast of other institutions of like character in America. Infirmaries (or almshouses), jails, municipal lock-ups, and several workhouses comprised the county and municipal institutions.

The organization of the Board marked a new era in the care and control of the unfortunate and delinquent classes. Established in 1867, it immediately brought to the attention of the public, through the annual reports and the visitation of its secretary, the defects and abuses of the system of the then organized charities, simultaneous with suggestions and carefully digested plans for improvement. After five years of existence the Board was abolished. Four years later, however, in 1876, through the effort of the late ex-President R. B. Hayes, then governor of the State, it was re-created. Many important recommendations were made by the first Board, and their adoption later has done much to raise the State to the exalted position she occupies to-day in the care of her unfortunates. The reports during this period, 1867 to 1872, throw more light on the condition and management of Ohio institutions than can be obtained from other sources. Our county jails were characterized as "schools of crime," our county infirmaries, or poorhouses, as places of moral and physical corruption. In these latter were the dependent children of the State, inhabiting, in common with the insane, epileptic, and idiotic and other unfortunate classes, buildings in many instances wholly unadapted to their use, ill arranged, poorly ventilated and lighted, and without provision for the separation of the sexes or classification of inmates. As for children's homes we had but one.

It is to the last report of this first Board that we must look for not only the condition of the charities of the State in 1871, but also for the numbers, classification, and distribution of the several classes of

dependents. The insane under public care during the year (1871) numbered 3,147, 2,111 of whom were in the State hospitals, 884 in county infirmaries, and the remaining 142 in county jails. In addition to the insane in the infirmaries there were 319 epileptics and 522 idiots. The total infirmary population, including all other classes, was 6,746, of whom 404 were children under sixteen years of age. There was not a jail in the State that provided in any proper sense for the separation and classification of prisoners.

The prison system of the State, if such it could be called, was comprised in the Ohio penitentiary at Columbus, juvenile reformatories (or industrial schools), one for each sex, county jails, and municipal workhouses at Cleveland and Cincinnati.

The total expenditures for that year for the support of the delinquent, defective, and dependent classes aggregated $1,250,000, the total number of persons being about 30,000. Based on the population of the State as given in the United States Census for 1870, these figures show that but a little over eleven persons in each thousand of population were wholly or partially dependent on public support.

This, in brief, was our condition in 1871. Let us now consider the present condition of the State, taking the statistics for 1891 and 1892. The insane under public care for the year numbered 8,454, an apparent actual increase during the twenty years of 5,307, or 169 per cent. More than 81 per cent. of the entire number were provided for in State hospitals. The increase in the population of the State for the same time was but 38 per cent. The apparent increase in the number of epileptics reported was 69 per cent.; in idiots, 225 per cent.; in the total population of the county infirmaries, including children's homes, 139 per cent. The jail population increased 226 per cent., the per cent. of women dropping from 9 per cent. to 7 per cent., and that of persons under sixteen years of age from 6 per cent. to less than 5 per cent. The number of State institutions had increased to fifteen, with two others in course of erection; and in these institutions the total increase in population was 195 per cent.

The number of persons wholly or partially maintained at public expense last year in the State exceeded 150,000, or about 1 person in every 25 of population; showing an apparent increase over 1871 of about 400 per cent. The aggregate expenditure for the year was $3,959,704.39.

It is difficult to determine how much of this general increase among all the above classes is relative. It is unquestionably true that there has been a relative increase, but certainly not to the extent indicated. The major part of it can be attributed to three causes. First, the more accurate information as gathered from recent reliable statistics. Second, the ex-soldiers and sailors, their wives, widows, parents, and children, who to the number of 40,000 (a conservative estimate) are to-day receiving aid in one form or another from the State or the respective counties. Third, the too liberal and often indiscriminate provision made for the support of the poor, without requiring of them such self-help as they could give alike to their own and society's benefit.

In meeting the conditions as they have existed and still exist, the principle that "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure" has not altogether been lost sight of. In our insane asylums mechanical restraint has been abandoned; employment of patients to a limited extent has been introduced, with beneficial results; a training school for attendants has been in successful operation for several years past at the Cleveland hospital, and others are contemplated; and, more important than all else, partisan political management is at the present time being successfully opposed. The deaf and dumb, the blind, the feeble-minded youth, the soldiers' and sailors' orphans, and the juvenile delinquents of both sexes are all in separate institutions, receiving the care, treatment, and training that shall enable them as far as possible to intelligently and honestly maintain themselves.

"Little children," whose presence in county infirmaries has been referred to, have long since been provided for in "county homes." Here, under kind and tender care, they are fitted for the home life that most of them have never known, and are, so far as practicable, and as soon as possible, placed in private homes, under intelligent and proper supervision. These homes are now administered through non-partisan boards of trustees. Our infirmaries are generally under improved and capable management. The county jails, the major portion of them, are far indeed from what they should be in regard to arrangement and style of buildings. However, about twenty-five out of the eighty-eight are erected on the "Ohio Jail Plan"; and in each of these classification and separation of prisoners are made possible. Moreover, it is now provided by law that all new jails shall

be so constructed as to make provision for such classification and separation; and quite a number of the counties have already taken action looking to the erection of these jails.

State provision has been made for the care and treatment of epileptics, and the Ohio hospital for epileptics is now a reality. The Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Home and the Working Home for the Blind have been in operation for several years past.

The prison system of the State is almost complete. Five workhouses in operation, and three projected, give ample provision for taking care of all misdemeanants, who, under a recent law, are committed under a cumulative sentence; that is, for each recommitment the offender receives double the next preceding sentence, and upon a fourth or later offence is sentenced to an indefinite term of three years, subject to parole. The juvenile reformatories and county jails have already been mentioned. The Ohio State Reformatory, now nearly completed, is designed to accommodate male felons between the ages of sixteen and thirty, convicted of a first offence and sentenced under the indeterminate sentence. The object of the institution is the reformation of those committed to its care, the methods to be such as will tend to develop the physical and mental capabilities of the convict, and enable him through the acquirement of a trade to support himself by honest effort.

The "Parole Law" and the "Habitual Criminal Law" have been in successful operation for nearly ten years. The latter provides for the detention for life of any person convicted and sentenced three or more times to a penal institution.

In 1882 a law was passed providing for the appointment of what are known as "Boards of County Visitors." This law, as amended, now provides for a membership of six persons, three of whom shall be women. Their duties are many. They include the quarterly visitation of all county and municipal institutions, their inspection and suggestions for betterment, the supervision of all children placed in families from the county home, and the attendance upon all trials held for the purpose of committing juveniles to either of our industrial schools. In every one of the eighty-eight counties of Ohio these boards are now organized, and their annual reports to the Board of State Charities show that they are uniformly discharging their duties with a zeal and efficiency that has had, and is having, a wonderful effect on the condition and management of our institutions.

One other agency for the relief and encouragement of the poor deserves mention, and that is the "Associated Charities." With the details of their system of work this paper cannot deal; but both their work and its results commend them, and we are hopeful of soon increasing their number much above the five present organizations.

The private institutions are numerous and of great variety. We have the free kindergartens and nurseries, homes for friendless, homeless, and abandoned children, homes for fallen women, homes for the aged, free employment bureaus and hospitals for the sick,— several hundred in the aggregate,— each of them performing its own special and important work and depending largely upon voluntary offerings from private purses for support.

With this brief and incomplete record of twenty years our report must close. Had it been possible to include in it as reforms accomplished the "Custodial Care of Adult Idiots" by the State, and a "Hospital for Crippled Children," we should have been almost satisfied; but we are proud of the record, and not unmindful that there is still work to be accomplished that will require the earnest effort and persistent patience of the past and confidence and hope in the future.

Institutions under State Control.

Name of Institutions.	Location.	Total cost of institutions.	Operating expenses of institutions for year ending Sept. 1, 1892.	Number of days' board to inmates during year ending Sept. 1, 1892.	Total number of inmates for year ending Sept. 1, 1892.	Expenses for maintenance and salaries from 1873 to 1892, inclusive.
Asylum for the Insane,	Athens,	$991,480.18	$123,299.48	313,535	1,065	$2,123,372.76
Asylum for the Insane,	Cleveland,	1,505,213.21	119,138.15	277,400	1,007	1,972,530.27
Asylum for the Insane,	Columbus,	1,927,348.43	169,836.81	364,635	1,340	2,537,222.02
Asylum for the Insane,	Dayton,	738,629.46	108,834.15	231,410	888	1,928,756.36
Longview Asylum for Insane,	Carthage,	—	152,432.25	313,535	1,059	1,162,583.06
Asylum for the Insane,	Toledo,	687,028.93	159,144.43	433,985	1,513	1,112,848.90
Institution for the Deaf and Dumb,	Columbus,	827,355.18	80,011.49	154,395	423	1,508,270.22
Institution for the Blind,	Columbus,	487,412.24	51,455.13	74,095	247	862,470.08
Institution for Feeble-minded Youth,	Columbus,	844,665.39	112,239.31	299,300	929	1,898,213.77
Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home,	Xenia,	477,010.62	150,148.97	327,040	1,138	1,931,493.61
Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Home,	Sandusky,	514,031.53	134,872.87	368,285	1,290	359,686 44
Ohio Working Home for the Blind,	Iberia,	—	10,122.98	10,950	30	22,175.41
Ohio Penitentiary,	Columbus,	665,040.09	257,440 58	629,990	2,582	3,807,755.26
Boys' Industrial School,	Lancaster,	328,017.37	84,263.34	245,990	1,216	1,145,641.40
Girls' Industrial Home,	Delaware,	271,651.33	34,550.99	113,880	411	618,486.11
Ohio Hospital for Epileptics,	Gallipolis,	76,177.21	—	—	—	—
Ohio State Reformatory,	Mansfield,	543,542.27	—	—	—	—
Total,		$10,884,603.44	$1,747,790.94	4,158,425	15,138	$22,991,505.67

ONTARIO, CANADA.

BY A. M. ROSEBRUGH.

In 1868 Mr. J. W. Langmuir was appointed the first Inspector of Prisons and Public Charities for Ontario, the duties of which office he performed until he resigned the position in 1882. During these fifteen years Mr. Langmuir fairly earned for himself the title of founder of the public institution system of the Province of Ontario. He brought to the work of his life, not only intelligence of a high order, but the most unbounded energy and enthusiasm as well.

In 1867 there were three asylums for the insane, with a population rather under 900 patients. They were maintained at a cost of about $125,000. The asylums for the insane and idiots now owned by the Province number seven. There were under treatment nearly 5,000 patients during the past year, maintained at a cost of about $550,000. There is also now being erected another asylum, which will increase the accommodation considerably; and there is also a private retreat for insane patients.

There was in 1867 only a small private institution for about 25 deaf and dumb pupils. In 1869 the Belleville institution for this class of defectives was established, which has at present accommodation for about 250 pupils, which is sufficient for all of school age in the Province. This institution is maintained at a cost to the Province of over $40,000. Since its establishment nearly a thousand pupils have received its benefits.

There was no establishment or school for the care and education for the blind in Ontario at the time of Confederation; but in 1871 the institution at Brantford was completed, and opened with accommodations for 150 pupils, which, as in the case of the deaf and dumb, is sufficient to meet the wants of the blind of school age for the entire Province. This establishment is maintained at an annual cost of nearly $40,000, and over 500 blind pupils have been educated and otherwise benefited by its training.

The hospitals of the Province are maintained by municipal and Provincial aid and the subscriptions and benefactions of private individuals. On the recommendation of Inspector Langmuir, an act was passed in 1873 regulating Provincial aid to hospitals, from which time the governmental appropriation was based on the number of

patients admitted and their length of residence; and, in order to encourage private and municipal aid, the grant to each hospital was also made contingent upon and determined by the amount received from private and municipal sources. In the year 1867 there were only eight hospitals in the Province, to which about 2,000 patients were annually admitted, and which were aided by government grants to the extent of about $25,000. At the present time there are twenty-nine hospitals in the various cities and towns of the Province, to which no less than 11,000 patients were admitted during the year 1892. These hospitals were maintained at a cost of over $275,000, of which the government grants amounted to about $100,000.

At the date of the Confederation there were eleven institutions for the care and education of orphans and neglected and abandoned children, two homes for the lodgment of indigent persons, combining also organizations for dispensing charity in a systematic manner, and one Magdalen asylum. These institutions, fourteen in all, maintained and cared for about 2,000 children and adults, and received from the Provincial funds about $40,000 toward their maintenance and support.

The act of 1873, already referred to, made the amount of Provincial aid to each institution contingent upon the amount of work done and the aid received from municipalities, private individuals, and other sources. Under this systematic method of granting government assistance, combined with governmental inspection, these charitable institutions have increased from fourteen to sixty; and the number of inmates maintained and cared for in 1892 were over 7,000. The government grants to these establishments for 1892 aggregated over $65,000.

Mr. Langmuir forcibly pointed out the evils of indiscriminate association of the inmates of the common gaol, and the almost entire absence of the means of effecting a classification of the prisoners. To remedy this state of things, the inspector, in his first report, made some most important recommendations, and before he retired from his position in 1882 he had the satisfaction of having every one of his recommendations wholly or partially acted upon; and the prison and reformatory system at present comprises fifty-five common and district gaols, one central prison, one reformatory for women, one reformatory for boys, one for girls, and one large industrial school for boys.

Jails do not come within provincial management. County poor-houses are inspected by the provincial inspector, and are found generally in good condition, and well managed.

In 1887 the Seventeenth Congress of the National Prison Association was held in Toronto. This was followed by the Ontario Prison Reform Conference, which was held in 1889, under the auspices of the Prisoners' Aid Association of Canada. As a result of this conference, a commission was appointed by the Ontario government to inquire into and report upon the penal and reformatory institutions of the Province. In appointing these commissioners, the Ontario government was fortunate in being able to secure the services of Mr. Langmuir as chairman of the board. This commission visited all the penal and reformatory institutions of the Province, and held sessions in Toronto, Hamilton, London, Kingston, and Ottawa; and evidence was taken from sheriffs, gaolers, wardens, and others regarding the working of the Ontario system. The commission also visited the States of Massachusetts, New York, Michigan, and Ohio, and took evidence from some of the most eminent penologists of the United States. The report of the commission is comprised in a volume of 798 pages. This report and the practical recommendations of the commissioners were fully indorsed by a pre-eminently representative Prison Reform Conference held in Toronto in 1891.

Among other things the establishment of a reformatory for young men — first offenders — was recommended, and the adoption therewith of the indeterminate sentence and the parole system. This was also indorsed by the Prison Reform Conference; and Sir John Thompson, the Premier of the Dominion, has promised to carry out the recommendation.

A third Prison Reform Conference was held in Toronto in December last; and the deputation waited upon Sir Oliver Mowat, Attorney-General of Ontario, to urge the Ontario government to give effect to the recommendations of the Prison Reform Commissioners with as little delay as possible. This he agreed to do. Since then the Provincial secretary has introduced a bill into the Ontario Assembly for "the better protection of children." This bill is based largely upon the recommendations of the Prison Reform Commissioners, and has been adopted by the legislature.

We trust it will be followed soon by other prison reform bills, so that full effect may be given to all the recommendations of the Prison Reform Commissioners.

PENNSYLVANIA.

BY CADWALADER BIDDLE.

On the twenty-fourth day of April, 1869, the Governor of Pennsylvania signed the bill creating the Board of Public Charities of that Commonwealth. It has continued in existence up to the present time. Substantially the same duties devolve upon it as were provided for by the original act. From time to time supplemental bills have been passed, adding somewhat to its duties, notably in the creation in 1883 of a Committee on Lunacy to be appointed by it, and to be composed of members of the Board, and to be under the general supervision of the Board.

The legislature was largely moved to its action creating this Board by special reports made to the then governor by the Hon. Mahlon H. Dickinson, the present president of the Board. Mr. Dickinson had received a commission from the governor, requesting him to visit the almshouses and jails of the State, and report to him the result of his investigation. These reports were transmitted by the governor to the legislature. They told for the most part a uniform tale. In poorly constructed buildings, with insufficient ventilation and drainage, inmates were found neither properly clothed nor fed. Filth was everywhere conspicuous, and not infrequently insane and idiotic persons were confined by bars and chains to narrow quarters.

The Board had given to it supervisory powers over all institutions, both public and private, organized for the care and treatment of pauperism, crime, disease, and insanity. While it had authority to require reports to be made by all such institutions at such times and in such manner as it should prescribe, its functions were largely advisory, and it had little power to compel the adoption of its suggestions. Experience has proved the wisdom of this provision. Through its general agent and its other members, it has unceasingly gone in and out among the institutions of the State. It has pointed out where changes might be wisely made, and by its quiet influence has brought about such improvements as make it difficult to realize oftentimes that these are the same institutions as those described by Mr. Dickinson in his original reports. Scarcely a building remains as it then existed. There has been either an entire reconstruction

or such remodelling as to leave but a vestige of the past. In numbers the institutions have been at least trebled.

The legislature has been largely influenced in its passage of bills pertaining to the special work of the Board by its recommendations. The area of the State being so great, and much diversity existing in its different sections, much variety has been allowed to exist. In its penitentiaries are to be found the separate system of confinement, as well as the congregate; while in the centre of the State a reformatory modelled upon that at Elmira has lately been constructed. Its institutions for juvenile offenders have been removed from their prison-like quarters in the large cities to capacious farms in the country, where, in many buildings, the family plan of treatment prevails, and where the reformation of the individual rather than his punishment is shown to be the main object.

The insane are provided for in institutions specially constructed for their care. There are hospitals for acute and curable cases and those requiring special treatment; while for such cases as are chronic, and are neither violent nor dangerous, provision is made in asylums adapted to their needs.

Hospitals for the care and treatment of the sick and injured have increased beyond expectation. Scarcely a disease is without a hospital for its treatment, there being special appliances provided for its care. Homes for the aged, whether married or single, exist in every section of the State; while those for children abound to such an extent as to raise the question whether too much provision has not been made for their care.

Other institutions, such as prisoners' aid societies, and societies for the prevention of cruelty to children and animals, and for almost every conceivable purpose, exist in great numbers, and are daily increasing.

Institutions of one other class demand special attention. When, by the passage of the law prohibiting the retention in poorhouses of children between the ages of two and sixteen, provision had to be made for the necessary support of this class, there grew up children's aid societies, whose object is to procure homes in private families in which such children shall be brought up as members of the families, and shall have such surroundings as they would probably have in after years. To render such a system efficient, constant and intelligent visitation is necessary. To this end, our Board

has given thorough sanction to the efforts of the children's aid societies of Pennsylvania, and we can point with pride to the work accomplished in this direction. It has, with our warm approval, passed beyond the taking charge of merely dependent children, and enters our courts to solicit and receive from our judges children against whom charges have been preferred, but who have not passed the period of possible reclamation. The results of their work have indeed been grand, and fully justify the confidence that our Board has placed in them.

The limits allowed me forbid my dwelling longer on the work accomplished by the Pennsylvania State Board. The legislature just adjourned has provided for the erection in Western Pennsylvania of an institution for feeble-minded children. It has appropriated large amounts of money to other institutions, and the aid given to private institutions has surpassed that of any previous year. The executive of our State has publicly notified the legislative committees that in no event would he approve an appropriation for a charitable object without the recommendation of the Board of Public Charities. He has also, in his messages to the legislature on several occasions, expressed his confidence in the reports of the Board of investigations made into several institutions, and his determination to sustain them in their efforts. It would be idle for us to say that we did not appreciate the confidence thus shown us by the executive of our State. We are not unmindful that, the greater the influence, the more likely is opposition to be developed by persons who cannot secure the accomplishment of what seem to us undesirable ends. There are few short of five hundred institutions which come under the supervision of this Board. We have been sustained in the past, and we hope that our greater efforts in the future will secure still further support.

I would call special attention to the statistical report to be submitted by Pennsylvania at another time during the session of this Congress. The figures therein contained, I feel satisfied, will place Pennsylvania in no unenviable light.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER STATE CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost of institutions to the end of their fiscal year ending in 1892.	Operating expenses of institutions for their fiscal year ending in 1892.	Total number of days' board to inmates during fiscal year ending in 1892.
State Penitentiary for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia,	$1,052,514.00	$123,963.53	379,974
State Penitentiary for the Western District of Pennsylvania,	Allegheny,	1,874,470.00	155,215.87	283,202
Pennsylvania Industrial Reformatory,	Huntingdon,	1,216,315.00	105,913.18	157,052
State Lunatic Hospital,	Harrisburg,	504,965.48	156,353.80	302,078
State Hospital for the Insane,	Danville,	980,000.00	183,906.36	402,600
State Hospital for the Insane,	Norristown,	1,063,500.15	354,417.90	696,132
State Hospital for the Insane,	Warren,	1,058,934.76	140,276.62	293,532
Western Pennsylvania Hospital for the Insane, not strictly a State Institution,	Dixmont,	842,550.00	150,111.84	274,134
State Hospital for Injured Persons of the Anthracite Coal Regions,	Ashland,	147,127.85	29,769.14	31,514
State Hospital for Injured Persons of Middle Coal Field,	Hazleton,	81,456.23	16,095.29	10,585
State Hospital for Injured Persons of Bituminous Coal Fields,	Blossburg,	22,230.30	3,950.20	2,303
State Hospital for Injured Persons of Bituminous Coal Fields,	Mercer,	21,725.00	3,921.59	1,067
State Hospital for Injured Persons of Bituminous Coal Fields,	Connellsville,	24,770.07	5,073.42	3,953
State Hospital for Injured Persons of Bituminous Coal Fields	Philipsburg,	25,000.00	5,217.43	4,015
Pennsylvania Reform School,	Morganza,	607,640.63	84,177.32	171,400
Pennsylvania Soldiers' and Sailors' Home,	Erie,	435,340.00	61,866.86	108,770
Home for the Training of Deaf Children before they are of School Age,	Philadelphia,	11,074.14	4,735.82	6,570
Totals,		$9,969,613.61	$1,584,966.17	3,128,881

RHODE ISLAND.

BY REV. JAMES H. NUTTING.

At the beginning of the period intended to be covered the Rhode Island State prison was situated in the city of Providence,— an ancient structure, ill adapted to its purposes, the day of whose usefulness was fast declining to a close. Its control was vested in an efficient board of prison inspectors. General Nelson Viall was the warden, having been five years in office. He still continues to discharge with signal ability the duties of his difficult and responsible

position. There were 71 State prison convicts, of whom 2 were women; the average number for the year 1872 being 66.

In the same building with the State prison was the Providence County jail, the warden being also the jailer. There were 113 jail prisoners, with an average for the year of 99. Each of the other four counties in the State had its jail; but then as now these were small, and used chiefly as houses of detention for persons charged with crime or misdemeanor and waiting trial for the same. Those who had received jail sentences, with few exceptions, were committed to the Providence County jail.

Each of the thirty-four towns in the State cared for its poor in its own way. In twenty-six of these towns were farms with buildings and improvements more or less suitable for almshouse purposes. The other eight towns boarded out their paupers upon the best terms they could make for themselves, generally with such persons as would board them cheapest. The superintendent of State Charities in his report for the year 1870 says: "Some towns do themselves no credit by the manner in which they care for their poor; and the whole system of contracting for the support of the poor with the lowest bidder is wrong, and ought to be speedily abolished." The total value of the town almshouse appointments in that year was $635,400. The inmates were 514, who were supported at a cost of $45,656. There were supported wholly or in part outside of these institutions 3,782 persons, at a cost of $42,320. Of the 4,296 persons who received aid from the public, 1,862 were of American and 2,434 of foreign birth. The entire cost within the State for outdoor and indoor relief was $87,976. The entire expense in the year 1892 was $78,277, showing a decrease of $9,699, though in the mean time the population of the State had increased more than 60 per cent.

In the State Insane Asylum, which had been recently established, were 142 patients, who were supported at a cost of $26,838, or $3.51 per week for each patient.

The House of Correction was in buildings which were designed to be only temporary, and which were badly crowded with 196 inmates, the cost of whose support was $18,660, or $2.44 for each person.

The unique and admirable system upon which our various State institutions are now administered was in its infancy, having been in-

augurated in the year 1869. A Board of State Charities had been constituted, and some progress made in the realization of those improved methods which have since governed.

Our Board of State Charities and Corrections consists of eight men appointed for a term of six years by the governor, with the advice and consent of the Senate, together with one whom these shall select to be their secretary, and who shall continue in office during the pleasure of the others who elected him, he being the only member of the Board entitled to receive any compensation for services rendered. In this Board are vested the oversight, management, and control of all our State penal, correctional, and charitable institutions, with power to appoint and remove at pleasure the warden of the State prison, the superintendents of other institutions, the physicians, and the religious instructor. The deputy warden and the deputy superintendents are also appointed by the Board, upon nomination of their respective superiors in office. All subordinate officers, attendants, and teachers are employed and discharged by the warden or superintendent under whom they are to serve, and at the pleasure of these. The Board fixes the salary of its secretary, and of all persons employed in any capacity within or about the institutions under its care. The Board is absolutely non-political.

The State of Rhode Island is the owner of nearly six hundred acres of land some six miles to the south of Providence, on which are seven institutions,— the State prison, the Providence County jail, the House of Correction, the State almshouse, the State Insane Asylum, and two reform schools — the Sockanosset School for Boys and the Oaklawn School for Girls. Three of these institutions are contiguous, and are united under the efficient superintendency of James H. Eastman, a man of lifelong experience in institutional work, who has been nearly eight years in his present office.

The Insane Asylum is a series of stone cottages so constructed that all the inmates live, eat, and sleep on the ground floors, and can exercise within broad enclosures under the open sky on every fair day in the year, enjoying at the same time a freedom from that manifest restraint which is so irksome and irritating to the insane. The cost thus far has been $277,000. A new building is now in process of erection, 488 feet in length, to accommodate 120

patients, at an estimated cost of about $65,000. Here are cared for all the pauper insane of our State, together with a considerable number besides whose friends prefer, because of the excellent management and successful methods, to pay their board here rather than at any other accessible asylum.

On Dec. 31, 1892, the number of inmates was 563,— of men 268, and of women 295.

The cost of the House of Correction was $209,000. The inmates are common drunkards, vagrants, lewd and wanton persons who are sentenced for terms varying from six months to three years, and who may be released at any time upon parole at the discretion of the Board of State Charities and Corrections. In the female department are kept all women who have been sentenced to the Providence County jail and to the State prison. Of the latter there are now but two individuals. The men are employed at farm-work, road-building, and chair-caning, the women at sewing, mending, and in the laundry. The whole number of inmates at the close of 1892 was 247,— 179 men and 68 women.

The State almshouse is a new building, a model for its purpose, finished in 1891, at a cost of $221,000. The inmates are aliens and others who have never secured a legal residence in Rhode Island or any other State, together with the paupers of such towns as prefer to pay their board here rather than to maintain a town almshouse. At the end of last year the population was 234.

The daily average of inmates in the asylum, House of Correction, and almshouse for 1892 was 1,035. These were supported at an expense of $133,751, or $2.41 per week for each person.

The State prison was erected in 1876, at a cost of $484,000, and has been pronounced the best small prison in the United States. As has been already said, the Providence County jail is united under one management with the State prison, the two classes of prisoners being subject to the same discipline, working at the same employments, occupying cells of the same construction and size. Their cells are, however, in different wings of the building. Their food is of good quality and abundant. Discipline is strict, but kindly, and designed to be reformatory in its influence. Privileges are granted as rewards for good behavior. Punishments for misconduct are mainly in the way of deprivations. The dark cell is used, but flogging is a relic of barbarism that has no place here or else-

where in our institutions. Complaints are few, outbreaks are unknown, and a State prisoner never escapes. The men are employed in shops at shoemaking, harness-making, light team work, and chair-caning. A considerable number of short-term jail men work at farming outside the walls. At the close of 1892 there were 124 State prisoners and 189 jail prisoners. The expenditures for the year had been $48,057, an excess over the receipts of $20,166.

The two reform schools are a mile apart, and each nearly as far from any other institution. The buildings of the Sockanosset School consist of the superintendent's house, four cottages, the chapel, the hospital, the work-shops, the boiler-house, and several farm buildings. The cost has been $176,000. It was organized as an open school in 1882. By an open school is meant that it is not surrounded by water, walls, or fences, and there are neither bars nor shutters. It is open in the same sense and in the same degree as any well-conducted boarding-school is open. Each cottage is a complete house, having its own school-room, dining-room, dormitory, and playground, with its own officer, teacher, and matron, who live in the cottage with the boys under their care. Three hours are spent in the school-room daily, five days in the week, and twelve months in the year. A special feature of the school is industrial training. No contract work is done, and nothing is made for sale. There is a tailor-shop, a blacksmith-shop, a machine-shop, a carpenter-shop, a printing-office, and a shoemaker's shop, with a competent instructor in each, whose business is to teach his trade to the boys. A liberal appropriation has been made by the legislature to equip an iron foundry. Boys who are not learning trades work on the farm and at improving the grounds. Six hours of work are required of all. The school is organized into a battalion of infantry, each cottage furnishing a company officered by its own boys, the whole in charge of a military instructor. The number of boys was on Dec. 31, 1892, 225; and the expense of the school for that year had been $41,452.

The Oaklawn School for Girls was organized in 1882 by Mrs. R. S. Butterworth, who has been since that date its superintendent. It has a building commodious and well adapted to its purpose, which cost $29,000. The girls, besides three hours of instruction each day in school, are taught plain sewing and housework, the aim being to prepare each one, amid the restraining and guiding influences of

a well-ordered house, to earn her livelihood after she shall leave the school. The number of inmates at the close of the year was 23, and the cost of maintaining the school was $4,192.

There is a medical department consisting of three physicians, at the head of which is Dr. George F. Keene, who has now been connected with these institutions nearly twelve years; and a non-sectarian religious instructor, the present incumbent having been in office a little more than four years.

The daily average number of inmates in all the institutions described was 1,632. The cost of maintenance was for each $2.46. These figures are for the year 1892.

Some features of our system may be named in closing: first, the administration is upon business principles and strictly non-political; second, there is no divided responsibility; third, each institution is subject to the same central authority as every other; fourth, the chief officers have been a long time in their positions; fifth, all the women and girls are controlled and cared for by women only; and, lastly, the very great economy of the system.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

List of the charitable and correctional institutions maintained from the State treasury: —

Institutions.	*Year Organized.*	*Annual Appropriation.*
South Carolina State Penitentiary, Columbia, ...	Sept., 1866	$6,300 *
State Lunatic Asylum, Columbia, ...	1826 (opened)	97,650
Institution for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind, Cedar Springs, .		15,925

Until recently insane patients of neighboring States were received at the asylum at Columbia. No aid is granted from the State treasury to private institutions of any sort.

On account of the crowded condition of the asylum, all commitment papers have to be approved by the superintendent of the lunatic asylum. Heretofore the county commissioners have had authority to send patients to the asylum without the State having any recourse. It was found that counties abused the privilege given them.

* For officers' salaries.

Every county has a county jail.

Thirty out of thirty-five counties have poorhouses. They are supported by counties. In three counties money is distributed directly to poor.

The general condition of jails and poorhouses is poor.

The following are some of the charitable institutions: Thomwell Orphanage, Clinton, $20,000; endowment, $5,270. Orphan House, Charleston, established 1790; annual cost, $20,000; accommodates 300 children. Almshouse for city of Charleston, founded 1712; annual attendance, 78; another for colored. Ropes and City Hospital, supported by city of Charleston; appropriation, about $16,000. St. Xavier Hospital, Catholic nuns, Charleston, pay and city patients. Columbia Hospital, city and public support. City Hospital (colored), Columbia, church and subscription. Loomis Hospital (colored), Chester. There are several hundred charitable institutions and societies in State.

The report of the penitentiary shows, for 1892, receipts $75,081.41, disbursements $60,955.93, of which $5,000 was paid on State farm, leaving cash balance October 31, end of fiscal year, of $14,125.48. Prisoners confined, 942; patients in asylum this date, 767; attendance at Institution for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind, 126.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

List of charitable and correctional institutions maintained from the State treasury: —

Institutions.	*Year Organized.*	*Approximate Value of Plant.*	*Annual Appropriation.*
Deaf and Dumb Asylum,	1883	$65,000	$13,900
Reform School,	1887	45,000	20,345
Penitentiary,	1881	200,000	32,366
Hospital for Insane,	1879	300,000	80,000

The blind are kept at Iowa College for the Blind at Vinton, Ia.,

No aid is granted from the State treasury to private institutions of any sort.

The outgrowth of complaint that it was much abused, and the belief that absolute pardon by the governor when justice indicated was preferable, have caused the repeal of the parole law for prisoners.

TEXAS.

BY BEN. E. M'CULLOCH.

As Corresponding Secretary from the State of Texas, it again becomes my duty to render my annual report from this the Empire State of the Union. Broad in her vast area, broad in her vast resources, in that she is foremost "in the production of cotton," foremost in the "number of cattle, horses, and sheep," foremost in her munificent "endowment of her public free schools, colleges, and university," she is soon to be foremost in her charitable and correctional institutions.

Insane Asylums.— The population of the State at the last census was 2,235,523. There are three insane asylums, at two of which there were remaining on Nov. 1, 1892, 1,337 inmates; and at the third, which had only been opened three months, there were 142. The per capita cost of maintenance of a patient at one of these institutions is about $100 per annum. They are intelligently and humanely managed, and report over 40 per cent. of those received during the past year as *cured* and discharged: the condition of those remaining is made as comfortable as practicable in their crowded condition; but they are inadequate to the accommodation of the insane of the State, and, as a result, many such persons are confined in county jails, be it said to the shame of the twenty-third legislature of the State of Texas, recently adjourned, which made no provision for another similar institution, which might very properly have been inaugurated and set apart exclusively for the colored population.

Blind Institute (White).— The Blind Institute is a school where the blind are fed, clothed, educated, and transported to and from the school at public expense, so as to fit them for becoming self-supporting like other classes of society. They are taught the approved modern methods of reading, writing, and other studies, as well as trades, bead-work, hand and machine sewing, etc. An oculist is in daily attendance, and 23 persons have been restored to sight in the last twelve years. The enrolment last session was 171.

Deaf and Dumb Institute.— The Deaf and Dumb Institute receives pupils capable of receiving instruction; and all expenses of a literary

education and learning, art and crayon work, printing, book-binding, and shoemaking, are borne by the State. The parents pay transportation, if able. If not, the State pays it. Pupils go home for a three months' vacation in summer. The attendance the past session was 205.

The Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute (Colored).— The Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute (colored) has been in operation about three years. It is a separate institution for the colored youth, has a separate board of managers, and is officered by colored officers. Its methods and aims are the same as those of white institutions, and it is successfully managed. Governor L. S. Ross told the writer, during his administration, that it was "about the best managed institution in the State."

The enrolment last year was 80, about half deaf and dumb and half blind.

State Orphans' Home.— The Orphans' Home was opened in 1890. It is for orphan children under fourteen years of age, who are clothed, fed, and educated at State expense. 60 have been received, of which 4 were returned to friends at their request. The capacity of the institution is 200, but it seems to fill up very slowly. Our people are not willing to have it said that their children (relatives) have to go to the State Orphans' Home. The Odd Fellows' order built and equipped an orphans' home in the State several years ago, but could not find any *orphans*, and are desirous of selling the property.

Bayland Orphans' Home.— The Bayland Orphans' Home has existed in a small way some twenty-five years. It has been more a nursery for the poor of the two cities of Houston and Galveston than aught else. It was situated between the two, but has been moved to Houston of late years. It is maintained almost exclusively by benefactions from these two cities. It is controlled by a board of trustees.

The Buckners' Orphan Home.— The Buckners' Orphan Home, located near the city of Dallas, is a creation of Dr. Buckners' own kind heart. It has grown from a "wee" thing in a few years to a family of 200. The doctor "lives by faith," and "trusts the Lord" for all he needs; and it has come,— the orphans to raise and the "wherewith" to build them a home, and feed, clothe, and educate them. He is a Baptist, but it is not a Baptist institution. He

would as soon have a Methodist endowment or contribution as any other.

Women's Relief.— The ladies of Fort Worth have inaugurated a home for the restoration of fallen women. It is crude yet: they asked the twenty-third legislature for recognition and aid, but failed. They have done what they could, and will press on. Women know no such word as defeat.

House of Correction and Reformatory.— This institution was opened in 1889, and is *full*,— has about 200 inmates. They are moving on smoothly. They have not yet the appliances for learning the trades: hence the boys go to school and work the farm. Much is to be hoped from this institution. Great good has already been accomplished by removing these boys from the baneful associations necessary to their confinement in the penitentiary. The separation of the blacks and whites into different institutions is greatly desired. Under the law now, they are "kept, worked, and educated separately"; but an entire separation would be far preferable to both, and give better results to each. The blacks are largely in the majority in the institution.

Penitentiaries.— Our State penitentiaries are two in number, and are full; about 1,750 inmates at the two, employed at different trades and manufacture of pig-iron and water-pipe. About 600 are employed on railroad repair trains, about 900 are hired out as farm laborers (all colored), about 150 are on share farms, and about 200 are on the State sugar plantations. All under State management. The lease system has been abolished; and the twenty-third legislature, just adjourned, has passed an act authorizing the use of $300,000 for the purchase of farming lands on which to utilize the surplus labor by raising cotton and sugar for State account. This will enable the management to withdraw the convicts from public works (railroads), and possibly reduce the number hired out on farms. This act, and the act creating a Board of Pardons (by the same legislature), are two of the best acts promulgated in this State for years, and are hailed with delight by all who feel an interest in our penal class, and the best management of these institutions.

General State Board.—There is no general board of managers in this State. Each institution has its own board, except that the penitentiary system is all under one board.

The Poor.— The poor of this State are sent to poor-farms, which

exist in almost all populous counties, and are kept usually in comfortable buildings and maintained at the county's expense; but, compared with our whole population, the per cent. of *very* poor in this State is very small.

All of our State institutions have good buildings, ample grounds, and are maintained exclusively at State expense, the earnings of each going towards the reduction of such expense.

UTAH.

BY MRS. CORNELIA PADDOCK.

In 1872 there was no such thing as public charity known in Utah. There were no hospitals, no asylums, no reformatories. The population of Utah at that date was 100,000, and the proportion of defectives and dependants was about the same as in other parts of the United States.

The Insane.— The only place for the confinement of the insane was a small building just outside the limits of Salt Lake City. This place was in private hands; and the wretched inmates were shut up in cages, chained, beaten with a club-strap, and treated in every way like dangerous wild animals.

The condition of the patients in the asylum was not generally known for a long time, but facts which were disclosed from year to year at length aroused the public conscience; and in 1880 the Utah legislature made an appropriation of $25,000 for the purpose of establishing a Territorial insane asylum. With this money a site was purchased and the building commenced. In 1882 and 1884 additional appropriations were made to the amount of $70,000, and by the aid of these appropriations one section of the building was completed in 1885; and in July of that year the patients in the Salt Lake Asylum were removed to the new institution. Every legislature since 1884 has made appropriations for the maintenance and enlargement of the asylum. In 1890 a total appropriation of $263,000 was made.

The asylum building is now one that every citizen of Utah can point to with satisfaction. Its money value, including grounds, fur-

nishings, etc., is $375,000. It has a capacity of caring for 400 patients. It is lighted by electricity, heated by steam, and ventilated by the best modern methods. I subjoin an extract from the report of the superintendent, Dr. Walter R. Pike, as to the percentage of cures.

"From the date of the opening of the asylum, July 20, 1885, to Nov. 30, 1892, there have been received into the institution 381 patients. Of this number 138 have been discharged and 80 have died, leaving in the asylum Nov. 30, 1892, 163 patients.

"If we eliminate from the estimate the patients received during the first six months, (these were the chronic cases that had been accumulating in the Territory for years, and for whom no hope of recovery could be entertained), and figure our percentage of recoveries against those received since, we have an average of 42 per cent. of recoveries. The death-rate has been high, but the age and condition of many of the patients would readily account for that. Every year there are a number brought who are dying of old age or exhaustion."

Deaf-mute Institute.— In 1880 a prominent citizen of Utah who had two deaf-mute children began to work for the establishment of a school for this class of defectives. Owing largely to his efforts, the legislature of 1882 made an appropriation "to afford the means of education to the indigent deaf-mutes of the Territory in the common branches of knowledge and in useful trades." Every subsequent legislature has made additional appropriations, and at present the Territory has a school for deaf-mutes equal to any similar institution in the Western country. The buildings were erected at a cost of $55,000. The total number of pupils received is 88; number enrolled at the close of 1892, 43. The success that has attended the methods of education employed in the school is most gratifying.

The Public Poor.— The Territory makes no provision for paupers or dependent children. Only two of the counties, Salt Lake and Weber, have poorhouses. That of Salt Lake County is a modern brick building, two stories high. It will accommodate about 40 inmates, but is overcrowded at present. The rooms are clean and well ventilated, and the inmates are well fed and kindly treated. A bad feature of the institution, and one that it seems impossible to remedy at present, is the association of feeble-minded children and youth of both sexes with the other inmates. During the past year

the county has rented cottages for paupers who could not be received at the poorhouse. Salt Lake County contains more than one-fourth of the entire population of Utah.

Private Charities.— In 1872 the only organized charities in Utah of which I have any knowledge were the Woman's Relief Society of the Mormon Church and the Guilds of the Protestant Episcopal Church.

For 1892–93 I am able to report that every religious denomination in the Territory has its societies for visiting and helping the poor and caring for the sick. The Women's Christian Temperance Union and the Young Men's Christian Association also do much charitable work. The former organization has labored for years for the reformation of the inmates of our jails and prisons, and has stood ready to aid discharged prisoners to obtain employment. The latter employs district visitors to find out where help is needed and to report cases of sickness. It has also a free employment bureau.

Here, as elsewhere, the Salvation Army is doing a noble work, striving to raise the "submerged tenth."

A notable event in the history of philanthropy in Utah for 1892–93 is the establishment of the Rescue Mission in Salt Lake. This charity was organized by concerted effort on the part of all the Protestant churches of the city. It has two branches, a Shelter for men and a Rescue Home for women. The Shelter was opened in January, 1893, in rented rooms in the business portion of the city. It consists of a lodging-room, restaurant, reading-room, and wood-yard. During a single week of March, 1893, 399 meals were supplied to men who would otherwise have gone hungry, and 113 persons were given shelter and beds. The men pay for their meals and lodging by sawing, splitting, and delivering kindling wood.

The Rescue Home for erring girls has just been opened in a rented house that will accommodate 9 inmates.

Dependent Children.— The first institution in Utah to open its doors for the care of dependent children was the Orphan's Home, established in 1884 by a few Christian women whose hearts were stirred with pity for the sufferings of neglected childhood. Beginning in a rented house of two rooms in 1884, the Orphan's Home Association now owns a three-story building which will accommodate over 40 children. There were 31 children between the ages of two

and twelve in the Home at the close of the year 1892. The institution is unsectarian, and is supported by the contributions of philanthropists of all creeds.

St. Ann's Orphanage.— St. Ann's Orphanage (Catholic) was established in October, 1891. It is in charge of the Sisters of the Holy Cross. It receives not only orphans, but deserted children, and children whose parents are unable or unfit to care for them. 60 children have been received since the Orphanage was opened. There are 33 inmates at present. Those who have gone out are children who were received temporarily, until their parents were able to care for them.

Other Private Charities.— The Woman's Relief Society of the Mormon Church has been in existence since the Territory was settled in 1847. It has a branch in every ward (the whole Territory is divided into bishop's wards), and employs visitors who are expected to report all cases of sickness or destitution.

An unsectarian organization which does much good in a quiet way is the Young Ladies' Aid Society,— an association of the daughters of the rich, who have taken up the work of the "Little Sisters of the Poor." Since its organization about six years ago, the society has disbursed over $9,000, raised by the efforts of its members, besides making and distributing a large amount of clothing. But the visits of the members to the homes of the poor, their personal services, and the number of people they have helped to help themselves represent a work whose value cannot be expressed in dollars and cents.

Hospitals.— There are three hospitals in Utah, all in Salt Lake City. St. Mark's (Protestant Episcopal) was established in 1873, the Hospital of the Holy Cross (Catholic) in 1875, and Deseret Hospital (Mormon) in 1882.

None of these hospitals are, strictly speaking, charitable institutions, as patients who are able to do so pay for care and treatment; but all receive as many charity patients as they can accommodate, and all have a large number of outdoor patients who are treated free of charge. Charity patients are received by each of the hospitals without distinction of creed. Holy Cross Hospital, which had its beginning in a small building in charge of two sisters of the order, now has accommodations for 150 patients. During the past year an annex has been built, at a cost of $3,000, for patients with

contagious diseases. The trustees of St. Mark's Hospital are constructing a new building (begun in 1892) which will double the accommodations for patients. There will be a free dispensary in the new building. Deseret Hospital, established by the exertions of a few Mormon women, has been sustained chiefly by the efforts of these and other women in the Mormon Church. The resident physician is a woman.

Reformatories.— In 1888 the Utah legislature appropriated $75,000 to establish a Reform School for Boys and Girls under eighteen years of age. Previous to this date juvenile offenders, including boys ten years of age, had been confined in the city and county jails, in the same cells with hardened criminals. With the money appropriated, a farm of fifty acres was bought, and a building erected capable of accommodating 100 inmates. The school was opened in November, 1889; and at the end of the following month there were 12 boys and 1 girl in the care of the superintendent.

The total number received into the school, from November, 1889, to January, 1892, was 78,—66 boys and 12 girls. Of these, 65 were between the ages of twelve and seventeen, and 13 were between the ages of eight and twelve. Of the 78 inmates received during the first two years, 16 were discharged as reformed, and 7 sent home on parole. 4 boys were sent to the penitentiary, and 8 escaped, leaving 35 boys and 8 girls in the school at the beginning of 1892.

Prisons.— The penitentiary, which is owned and maintained by the United States, is the only prison in the Territory except the city and county jails. Both Territorial and United States prisoners are confined in it. In 1872 the penitentiary consisted of a block-house of one room. The walls of this building were made of heavy timbers, fastened together by iron spikes. The floor was of blocks of unhewn stone, laid without mortar.

In 1892 the United States, after expending nearly $200,000 in its construction, completed the present penitentiary, which is as nearly perfect in all its appointments as any similar institution in the country. There is a good library for the convicts, and religious services are held every Sunday in the prison chapel by ministers and members of the different Christian churches. The one thing lacking is regular employment for the prisoners.

In 1872, when the population of Utah was 100,000, the number of convicts in the penitentiary was 25. In 1892, when the population

had increased to 250,000, the number of convicts in the penitentiary at one time was 200. This would seem to show that there had been a relatively great increase of crime. Such, however, is not the case. Twenty years ago, owing to the conflict between the federal and local authorities, the courts were inefficient, and many crimes went unpunished. It must be borne in mind, also, that since 1885 there have been many convictions under the act of Congress known as the Edmunds Law; and all these convicts have been sent to the penitentiary.

Woman's Christian Industrial Home.— The Home for destitute women who renounce polygamy was built and furnished by the government at a cost of nearly $100,000, and Congress has appropriated annually the sum of $4,000 for its maintenance.

One of the most encouraging signs of the times for the workers along the lines of charity and reform in this Territory is the recent organization of the Utah Association of Charities and Corrections.

It will be perceived, by a reference to the foregoing report, that none of the charitable or reformatory institutions in Utah date back more than ten years. There have been great advances made in the last five years, and the year 1892 has witnessed the beginning of new forms of benevolence.

VERMONT.

BY JULIA C. R. DORR.

It is as true now as it was when I made a similar report some years ago that Vermont, shut in by her mountain fastnesses, with no large cities within her borders, and no floating population, to speak of, has comparatively little need of penal institutions or of the great charitable forces required by her sister States.

Yet she has something to do, and possibly will have still more as the years go on; for her foreign element is steadily growing larger. Not many years ago an Italian or a Scandinavian was regarded as a natural curiosity. Now they do much of the work in our quarries, and are competing with the Irishman in the realm of the pick and shovel. This foreign population is perhaps less provident, less self-supporting, than were the sturdy founders of the State; and what

changes it may yet bring about in the body politic it is not easy to predict. But even now we have the sick, the destitute, the improvident, to care for; and not even our everlasting hills can shut out crime and folly, and the evils that follow in their train. All the large towns, and many of the smaller, have their mission schools, their local charities, their kindly aid societies, of which it may well be said, "How far that little candle throws its beams!" But of these it is not my province to speak. Their record is kept in heaven.

The Roman Catholic diocese of Burlington was established in 1853, and included the whole State. Its first bishop, the Rt. Rev. Louis de Goesbriand, has the honor of having founded at Burlington a "Home for Destitute Orphan Children," placing it in the charge of the "Sisters of Providence." In 1883 the old orphanage was abandoned; and the Sisters took possession of a handsome brick building on the shore of Champlain, commanding a magnificent view of lake and mountains. This institution is maintained wholly by voluntary contributions. It can accommodate 200 children; but at present its inmates number 120, including a few old people who share with the children the gentle ministrations of 15 Sisters.

Burlington is also the site of the Protestant "Home for Destitute Children." This institution is, and has been from its small beginning in 1865, entirely under the care of women, and is so endowed as to be self-supporting. It seeks not only to provide for the immediate needs of the children, but to forecast their future by securing good and permanent homes for them. It is unsectarian; and, in addition to the board of twelve managers from whom the officers are elected, it has a manager in each county in the State. This beautiful, beneficent work is done very quietly. There are no paid officers, and every dollar in the treasury goes toward the maintenance of the children. Improvements are added year by year. It has at present two schools, and will soon establish a kindergarten. The ages of the children now receiving its fostering care range from two weeks to sixteen years. Their number at last report was 78; whole number since foundation, 832.

The "Old Ladies' Home," in Rutland, is so young an establishment that very little need be said about it. In 1889–90 a pleasant, commodious house, commanding one of the finest ranges of mountain and valley in our whole State, was built as a shelter for that

large class of refined elderly gentlewomen who, though they may be in need of assistance, are by birth, education, and breeding unfitted for the ruder associations of the poorhouse. It has no endowment, and is not a charity pure and simple. No woman under sixty-five is received; and each must pay the sum of $200, which insures her a home for the remainder of her life. The Home is in the charge of a band of women who are most enthusiastic in its behalf. It is as yet in its early infancy, but its managers hope and believe it will grow into one of the most helpful institutions in the State.

The latest report of the Soldiers' Home at Bennington ends with June 30, 1892, as do all the reports to which I shall refer hereafter. It was not until 1884 that Vermont felt the imperative need of a home for her veterans. Soon after this the beautiful country mansion, with its farm of nearly two hundred acres, its fine aqueduct and fountain (said to be the highest in the world), its lawns and groves, which had been known as the "Park Home for Women and Children," was offered to the trustees of the Soldiers' Home as a free gift. Needless to say, it was accepted; but, as some changes in the house were found indispensable, it was not formally opened for the reception of inmates until May 1, 1887. The number received during the first three months was 50; and up to last July 166 veterans have found a home within its walls.

The Vermont Asylum for the Insane was founded by a woman. In 1834, when Dorothea Dix was still a school-girl, Mrs. Anna Marsh, widow of Dr. Perley Marsh, made her last will and testament. Her home was near Brattleboro; and the square, hip-roofed mansion, where she indulged herself in a generous and somewhat stately hospitality, still proudly bears the weight of its one hundred and twenty-eight years. Among other bequests she gave to the town of Vernon, "for the support of preaching," — quaintly remarking that the Vernonites were a godless set that never went to meeting, and she wanted to get them together on the Sabbath, — the sum of $2,000. She herself was not connected with any church, and her non-sectarian spirit and large-heartedness were abundantly evident. She gave to the town of Hinsdale a bell which was placed in the tower of the first church in that village. Afterwards it was hired by the Universalists on condition that it be rung three times a day. Subsequently it fell into the hands of the Methodists, and was finally sold for old iron, and the proceeds cast into the town treas-

ury. Saying to her lawyer that everybody gave to missionary and educational objects, but that "no one cared for the poor insane," she bequeathed $10,000 for the erection and support of a "Hospital for the Relief of Insane Persons." Green be the grave to which she went soon after, and blessed be her memory! From this comparatively small beginning the Vermont Asylum at Brattleboro has grown to its present proportions. It now sits in the heart of its extensive grounds, a range of stately, well-appointed brick buildings, capable of fitly accommodating about 350 patients, 2 more than the number given in its last report. It has its "New Park," its "Summer Retreat," with its wide verandas and shady nooks, and its "Cottage." It keeps up with the times; and its late superintendent, Dr. Draper, who gave nineteen of the best years of his life to its service, and whose unlooked for death was so widely lamented, was one of the foremost men of his day, too well known to need more than mention here.

But the Brattleboro Asylum was overcrowded. No skill or care could safely keep 500 insane persons in quarters intended for two-thirds that number. In 1891 one wing of the new Vermont State Asylum at Waterbury was completed, and to it were transferred from Brattleboro 85 men and 100 women. When the whole building is completed, it will accommodate between 400 and 500 patients. The whole number admitted during the year ending June 30, 1892, was 224.

In the limited time at my command it is not possible for me to compare the present condition of the State prison at Windsor with what it may have been in the past. It has to-day 105 inmates,— 92 white men, 11 colored men, and 2 white women. In their last biennial report the directors say:—

We have visited and examined the prison often during the last two years, and are gratified to find it neatly kept and well managed, and the welfare of the prisoners properly cared for.

There are eight hundred volumes in the prison library. It is stated that the prisoners read the books with avidity, and are eager to get them. The chaplain says:—

"The most important and difficult part of my prison duties I have felt to be the regular and systematic visitation of the prisoners in their cells. Since my last report, I have made not less than six hundred visits, besides attending to special calls to see prisoners who needed counsel or comfort. I have not knowingly neglected

any prisoner in sickness or when dying. The Sunday service, with the help of a good choir, is never omitted."

Of the 88 convicts in the prison last June, 44 claim to be of temperate habits, while 44 declared themselves intemperate. 84 could read and write, 1 could read only, and three could do neither. 63 were Protestants. 24 were Romanists. The average length of sentence was five years, six months, and seven and a half days. No prisoner was awaiting execution, and 6 were imprisoned for life.

It seems certain that Vermont believes in the healing and beneficent influence of the beautiful; for she gives to her wards such beauty of mountain and valley, sky, lake, and river as one might well go far to see. This is eminently true of the Vermont House of Correction at Rutland, designed, as far as I can ascertain, for the "correction" of minor offenders. The institution is wisely and humanely managed, and it is safe to say that nine-tenths of its inmates were never in better or more comfortable quarters. In looking over the "commitments" in the last report, it is strange to see in this prohibition State, how large a proportion are for intoxication The great majority of the sentences are for less than one hundred days.

The Reform School at Vergennes, on the old United States Arsenal grounds, should not be regarded as a penal institution. Its mission is to save, not to punish, to help and build up, not to cast down and disgrace. As far as can be, its methods and discipline are those of the family. It seeks to rule by love, and by appeals to the best that lies dormant in the heart of each lad and lassie, rather than by the terrors of the law. It nourishes the *esprit de corps* that builds up self-respect and respect for one's fellows. It has its schools, its workshops, and its industrial class, where the boys are trained in the use of wood-working tools, under the sloyd system. The whole number of boys committed during the two years ending June 30, 1892, is 125. Whole number of girls, 29. Since its establishment 842 boys and 84 girls have been under its charge.

WASHINGTON.

List of the charitable and correctional institutions maintained from the State treasury: —

Institutions.	*Year Organized.*	*Biennial Appropriation for* 1893–94.
School for Defective Youth,	1886	$80,000
Reform School,	1890	72,000
Penitentiary,		242,000
Insane Asylum, Medical Lake,		163,750
Insane Asylum, Steilacoom City,		251,660

WEST VIRGINIA.

BY S. HAMILTON DAY.

The twenty years from 1872–92 comprehend the larger part of the history of West Virginia as to its charitable and correctional institutions. The story, therefore, can be quickly told. This State was born out of the throes of civil war, and was taken from territory formerly constituting a part of Virginia. It had but little slave labor, and so before the war this section was at some disadvantage with the Virginia east of the mountains. While very rich in mineral resources, it is only within recent years that attention has been given to their development. These facts indicate the financial limitations this State has labored under, and have an important bearing upon its apparent backwardness in the development of its eleemosynary and punitive institutions.

The State is made up largely of a rural population of some 800,000. It has but three cities whose population is over 10,000, the largest of these being but 35,000. It received from old Virginia but one of its present institutions, the hospital for the insane at Weston.

Penitentiary.— There is one penitentiary, with 352 convicts. The last report of the superintendent states that, while the colored population of the State is 4 per cent. of the entire population, yet 32 per cent. of the convicts of the penitentiary are colored persons. As the population of the State is still homogeneous, this is a fact of some interest to the sociologist.

Reform Schools.— This State has one Reform School which is for boys. It was established four years ago. A movement was started last fall to have a reform school for girls.

Insanity.— The problem of insanity is compelling study and larger expenditure in West Virginia. There is a regular and rapid increase in the number of insane in this State. In the Insane Hospital at Weston there are at the present time nearly a thousand patients. Such has been the increase of insanity that the legislature has been compelled to build another hospital nearer the centre of the State. It will soon be opened for this unfortunate class, and will relieve the present overcrowded condition of the asylum at Weston, and be able perhaps to accommodate the very many insane persons who are now confined in the county jails. It is an interesting fact in the past two decades or so that, of the 3,496 persons treated for insanity, 842 were farmers and farmers' wives and sons and daughters.

Deaf and Blind.— The comparison of the records of the institutions for the deaf and blind show great improvement in the methods of the present over the past. This is especially true as regards the method of bringing these unfortunates into contact with the outer world. In the application of improved educational processes for the deaf and blind, West Virginia has kept fully apace with the many advances made the past twenty years.

WISCONSIN.

BY G. FRELLSON.

Wisconsin has no State Board of Charities, but it has a State Board of Control and a State Board of Health. The Board of Control was organized June 30, 1891. It is composed of six members, appointed by the governor under the provisions of Chapter 221, Laws of 1891, which enactment did away with the State Board of Charities and Reform and the State Board of Supervision, and imposed upon the State Board of Control the functions of the two boards thus abolished.

This Board report the amount of money expended for the insane, prisoners, the poor, etc. Their duties are to maintain and govern

the different State institutions, to act as a lunacy commission, to make quarterly visits to all county asylums, for the purpose of regulating the management and conditions of their inmates and to order correction, if necessary, and to collect and tabulate important statistics of insanity, pauperism, and crime. They have the confidence of the public of the State of Wisconsin.

We have seven State institutions, as follows: State Hospital for the Insane, Northern Hospital for the Insane, School for the Deaf and Dumb, School for the Blind, Industrial School for Boys, State prison, State Public School for dependent children. We have four semi-State institutions, twenty-one county asylums for the chronic insane, one county hospital for the insane, one veterans' home, sixty-six county jails, forty-three county poorhouses, one hundred and seventy-one police stations and lock-ups, and several private benevolent institutions. We are now building two more county asylums, and are authorized to build another. These institutions are in a prosperous condition, and are continually looked after by the Board of Control.

The Insane.— The State supports all the insane who have no residence in any particular county. Insane persons in county asylums are supported by the county, with the aid of $1.50 per week from the State. During 1892, 559 persons were admitted to the two State hospitals, showing a decrease of 76 from 1891. Up to May 1, 1893, the twenty-one county asylums were caring for 2,204 patients.

Paupers.— Paupers are a charge upon the several counties or towns in which they have a legal residence, unless otherwise provided by law. Residence in the county or town for one year without poor relief secures a pauper settlement.

Dependent Children.— The State Public School for dependent children has admitted during 1892 185 children, and has up to Sept. 30, 1892, about 815 children in homes on trial. Wisconsin has adopted by law the wise plan that this school shall be maintained as a temporary home, and not as a place in which to bring up the children.

State Prison.— 549 persons were admitted during 1892, showing a decrease of 19 from the previous year. Indeterminate sentences, with conditional liberation for convicts, are now optional with trial judges. Of those discharged, reports are received in only one or two cases. The law does not seem to meet with much favor; and it is

the opinion of the warden that no prisoner should be sentenced under this law, but recommends that a law be passed placing some limit to the term of life prisoners, in cases where their conduct has been perfect.

All the counties in Wisconsin with the exception of two are provided with jails. We have no insane persons in any of our jails.

Industrial Schools.— We have two Industrial Schools, one for boys in Waukesha and one for girls in Milwaukee. The former admitted during 1892 173 boys. It is a well-conducted institution. The latter for girls is under the control of a board of resident lady managers. It is designed as a reformatory for vicious, stubborn, and unruly girls, and a temporary place of detention for boys and girls under ten years of age. The counties committing children to this institution are required to pay $2.50 per week for their maintenance. This school was organized in 1875, and has been very successful in reformatory work. The State owns the buildings, and makes annual appropriations to keep them in repair.

Private and Benevolent Institutions.— The numerous private and benevolent institutions in the State are doing a noble charitable work. They are all well managed.

I am sorry to say that we have no State provision for the care of idiots or imbeciles in Wisconsin. If there is necessity for any institution in Wisconsin in which the defective classes are to be cared for, it is for a home for the feeble-minded. The State has dealt liberally with all other classes of defectives, but for this large class it has done nothing. As a consequence, they have been crowded into insane asylums, to the detriment of the patients; hustled into poorhouses, to get rid of them, without any effort ever being made to better their mental condition. Or, worse, they are left to run at large, a burden to the community and a menace to society. Already seventeen of the sister States have made provisions for this class, and the necessity is as urgent in Wisconsin as in any State that has made provisions. The census of 1890 shows that there were 2,402 of these defectives within our borders. The legislature last winter passed a law appropriating $40,000 for a home for this class of unfortunates; but, when it came to be signed by the governor, he for some reason vetoed the bill.

To recapitulate: In 1873 we had a State Board of Charities and Reform composed of six members, with Mr. H. H. Giles as presi-

dent, and our venerable friend Andrew E. Elmore as a member. We had then seven State institutions, as follows: School for the Blind, School for the Deaf and Dumb, two hospitals for the insane, State prison, the Industrial School for Boys, and the Soldier's Orphan Home. These institutions were then maintained on an appropriation of about $185,000. Now these same institutions receive appropriations of about $600,000. The inmates in these institutions were 779 in 1873, in 1892 nearly 1,900 persons. We have now, in addition to these institutions, the State Public School for dependent children, the Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls, the Veterans' Home for dependent soldiers and their wives, several county asylums for the chronic insane, any number of private benevolent institutions, a better system of caring and providing for all classes of unfortunates; and, in short, there has been great and steady progress in charitable and reformatory work of all kind. In this country, fortunately, the duty of the State to make provisions for the care of the insane, the deaf and dumb, the blind, the pauper, and the prisoner, is a recognized principle of government.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER STATE CONTROL.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Total cost of Institution to Sept. 30, 1892.	Total expenses for year ending Sept. 30, 1892.	Total days' board for year ending Sept. 30, 1892.
State Hospital,	Mendota,	$3,314,100	$102,500	$199,470
Northern Hospital,	Winnebago,	2,788,800	115,700	230,508
School for Deaf,	Delavan,	1,268,200	37,600	51,300
School for Blind,	Janesville,	965,300	26,600	22,200
Industrial School,	Waukesha,	1,498,300	55,400	115,656
Prison,	Waupun,	1,319,200	69,800	188,988
State Public School,	Sparta,	325,400	46,900	86,742
		$11,479,300	$454,500	$894,864

REPORTS FROM STATES.

THE FIGURES INDICATE THE PAGES OF THE PROCEEDINGS IN WHICH THESE REPORTS ARE TO BE FOUND.

	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.
Alabama,	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	378	20	27	303	—	293	117	315	256–289	251–315	291
Alaska,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	296
Arizona,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	316	292	251–315	—
Arkansas,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	28	—	—	—	118	—	—	—	296
California,	—	—	—	—	—	3	241	163	—	21	29	304	21	293	119	—	256–289	—	296
Colorado,	—	—	—	—	—	xxxii, 4	—	—	—	22	32	305	23	301	123	317	256–289	251–315	300
Connecticut,	35	—	—	24	—	4	212	247	—	—	33	307	26	—	123	—	256–289	251–315	300
Delaware,	—	61	—	—	—	5	—	—	—	—	37	309	29	306	124	317	256–289	251–315	304
District of Columbia,	—	—	—	—	—	21	55	251, 164	—	24	39	—	30	310	—	—	256–289	251–315	307
Florida,	—	—	—	—	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	310	—	—	124	—	256–289	—	310
Georgia,	—	—	—	—	—	5	—	—	—	—	43	—	—	—	125	—	256–289	—	310
Idaho,	—	—	—	—	—	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	256–289	251–315	311
Illinois,	22	24	xviii	9	13	xxxiv, 7	51	158	—	27	43	310	33	314	125	—	—	251–315	313
Indiana,	—	—	—	21	19	7	—	174	130	—	45	312	35	315	130	—	290	251–315	316
Indian Territory,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	318	—	318	256–289	251–315	—
Iowa,	—	—	—	17	—	xxxviii, 8	—	169	151	—	47	313	39	326	133	—	293	251–315	318
Kansas,	—	—	—	—	15	xlv, 8	—	—	—	—	—	—	44	329	133	321	256–289	251–315	323
Kentucky,	—	—	—	—	—	8	211	—	385	—	51	316	—	331	134	321	256–289	251–315	—
Louisiana,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	318	47	—	135	—	256–289	—	—
Maine,	31	—	—	—	—	9	205	59	—	29	52	318	—	—	135	323	256–289	251–315	327
Maryland,	—	—	xviii	—	—	xlii, 9	—	—	—	—	52	318	48	332	135	324	256–289	251–315	331
Massachusetts,	23, 38	17	xx	27	22	9	—	52	51, 467	29	58	320	48	336	137	327	256–289	251–315	339
Michigan,	—	—	xvii	29	10	xxxvii, 11	234	72	58	35	61	322	52	338	142	329	256–289	251–315	345
Minnesota,	—	—	•—	—	—	xlvii, 11	34, 237	—	308	41	61	323	53	343	147	332	256–289	251–315	347
Mississippi,	—	—	—	—	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	324	56	346	152	—	256–289	251–315	357
Missouri,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	160	132	—	64	325	—	—	152	332	256–289	251–315	358
Montana,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	256–289	251–315	365
Nebraska,	—	—	—	—	—	xl	—	—	317	43	65	327	58	350	152	333	295	251–315	366
Nevada,	—	—	—	—	—	13	—	—	—	—	66	328	—	—	152	—	—	251–315	—
New Hampshire,	32	—	—	—	—	13	23	—	463	—	67	—	—	352	152	335	256–289	251–315	375
New Jersey,	—	58	—	—	—	13	229	241	205	45	68	328	62	—	156	—	256–289	251–315	376
New Mexico,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	296	251–315	379
New York,	16	20	vii	25	20	14	240	65	57	46	69	329	62	355	157	—	256–289	251–315	379
North Carolina,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	157	160	—	70	330	—	—	157	338	256–289	251–315	390
North Dakota,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	22	37	308	28	303	124, 157	348	256–289	251–315	391
Ohio,	—	—	—	12	23	14	208	69	53	49	72	331	—	356	158	—	256–289	251–315	392
Oregon,	—	—	—	—	—	16	—	—	155	52	74	334	65	359	159	—	256–289	251–315	—
Pennsylvania,	19	20	—	22	19	17	86	66	37	52	74	336	66	361	166	349	256–289	251–315	401
Rhode Island,	36	23	xv	26	—	xliii, 17	214	—	49	53	79	—	—	362	169	351	298	251–315	404
South Carolina,	—	—	—	—	—	—	244	—	457	—	80	—	—	364	169	—	256–289	251–315	409
South Dakota,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	22	—	308	—	—	169	352	256–289	251–315	410
Tennessee,	—	—	—	—	—	18	—	—	158	54	81	—	—	—	170	353	256–300	251–315	—
Texas,	—	—	—	—	—	xxxiv, 19	—	—	—	—	83	338	—	367	170	354	256–289	251–315	411
Utah,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	54	—	—	—	—	—	—	256–289	251–315	414
Vermont,	33	—	—	—	—	20	35, 238	—	379	57	84	340	—	—	172	—	257–289	251–315	419
Virginia,	—	—	—	—	—	20	—	—	—	—	85	341	68	368	173	355	256–289	251–315	—
West Virginia,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	89	344	69	—	174	356	256–289	251–315	424
Washington,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	88	342	68	—	—	—	—	251–315	424
Wisconsin,	20	21	xiii	—	11	21	97, 228	253	43, 388	58	91	344	70	371	175	—	256–302	251–315	425
Wyoming,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	347	73	—	—	356	—	251–315	—

XIII.

Minutes and Discussions.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

FIRST SESSION.

Thursday night, June 8, 1893.

The twentieth annual session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was opened on Thursday night, June 8, 1893, at 8 P.M., in the Memorial Art Palace, Lake Front, Chicago, Ill.

The Conference was called to order by the President, Rev. H. H. Hart, St. Paul, Minn. Prayer was offered by Rev. W. M. Lawrence, D.D., of Chicago.

President HART.— *Ladies and Gentlemen*,— It has been customary in the organization of the National Conference of Charities year after year to have what is known as a Local Executive Committee, which does the work of local organization, in preparation for the Conference. This year there was no provision made for the usual Local Committee. It was understood, when we agreed to come to Chicago, that we were not to have such a committee. But that work has been done, and done very effectively, by one who has had an extraordinary amount of other business to employ her time,— one who is not only chairman of the Committee of Charities and Correction of this city of Chicago, but is a member of the Chicago School Board, and engaged in every good work that comes to the surface in the city of Chicago. I have the pleasure of introducing to you the one who is, so far at least as this Conference is concerned, *the Flower* of Chicago, Mrs. J. M. Flower.

Mrs. J. M. FLOWER.— *Mr. President and Members of the Twentieth National Conference*,— I esteem it an honor to be permitted, as chairman of the Joint Committee of Moral and Social Reform Con-

gresses to extend the first greeting to a body of men and women like yourselves, who are banded together, not for pecuniary profit, but for the betterment of your fellows, and with whom I have previously had so many pleasant associations.

It is a great pleasure to welcome you to Chicago, a pleasure that, truth compels me to state, is in a measure selfish; for I trust out of your presence may come benefits that will cause these meetings to mark an era in the philanthropical work of our city.

Chicago is young and strong, but somewhat overgrown. The young boy who makes too rapid growth becomes suddenly conscious of his physical proportions, of having hands and feet not yet fully under his control; and he passes through a period of awkwardness and self-consciousness, of longer or shorter duration, according to surrounding conditions, before he learns to make the proper use of his physical powers. Chicago is now in that period of her growth, in charitable matters especially.

Institutions abound; money is given freely; no real suffering need exist. At the first hint of a new want in any direction, some one seeks immediately to organize an association or an institution for its relief, often with little or no knowledge of the scope of those already in existence or of the best method of accomplishing the result desired. We have not yet learned to make the most effective use of our powers, to husband our resources, to realize that the duplication of institutions is an injury both to ourselves and the cause we wish to advance, that prevention is better than cure, and that organization is the first step towards a thorough knowledge and proper handling of our charitable enterprises.

This is one of the many things I hope may be learned through you, who, coming, many of you, from mature and well-developed communities, are prepared to give us the benefit of the wisdom gained by experience.

The pleasure I feel in welcoming you has in it, however, a bit of alloy, in that you have come at a time when we cannot reciprocate, as fully as we would like, the hospitalities extended to the delegates at many previous Conferences. It is not that Chicago is less hospitable, or because she has less appreciation of the self-sacrificing character of your work, but because she is entertaining the world. You are only one of many conferences to meet here this summer, and we can offer you little beyond the beauty and marvels of our great White City. This must take the place of more personal entertainment. At Denver last year we revelled in the wonders of nature that were so freely displayed for our enjoyment; and here, likewise, God's wonder works are spread out before you, through the triumphs of man's achievements, at Jackson Park.

We are not able to make them quite so free to you as the glories of Denver were made to us; but, then, they cost more to get here.

The charitable institutions of Chicago extend to you a greeting through me, and invite you to visit them at your pleasure. In their name, and in the name of all in this great city who, like yourselves, are struggling for the uplifting of humanity, I bid you a hearty welcome.

The President called attention to a clock upon the platform which was to serve as a time-keeper for each speaker. It had only a minute hand, which was to be set at twelve as each person began to speak. By glancing at this hand, speakers could easily keep track of the minutes they were speaking.

Mr. Alexander Johnson, secretary of the State Board of Charities of Indiana, was asked to respond.

Mr. JOHNSON.—*Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,*—Whenever I come to Chicago I always feel like a ghost. I am revisiting the places that were my haunts in childhood. The stones of the street and my feet were brothers. I always feel very proud of the smoky but handsome town. Chicago needs charity organizations and conferences, and anything of the kind that it can get. There is nothing that is too good for Chicago. It does not propose to have the earth, but it proposes to have the fruits thereof in the very best manner. I suppose there is nothing in the world in the way of charities or correction, in the way of good citizenship, splendid organization, substantial giving, or anything else, that is not to be found in this great city. We may brag about Chicago and what she has done, but there is nothing anywhere so wonderful as this city. And what she has done in a material way she will do in a spiritual way and in a charitable way. We know that in coming here her citizens desire to do all they can for us, to make us feel at home and feel that we belong here, where all the world is to-day.

This is our twentieth anniversary. I have only been a member of the Conference for half that time. How much we think of each other, and how much we think of the people we come here to see! One of the delightful things of life is being employed in charitable work. You see the faces of other members, and you know they feel just as you do. We knew, when we were coming in here, that we were coming into a hospitable company. In the name of the delegates, we thank the citizens of Chicago for the hearty welcome they have given us through Mrs. Flower.

Hon. William Howard Neff, of Cincinnati, was next introduced.

Mr. NEFF.—*Mr. President,*—To-day it appears to me that I am in a dream. Forty-six years ago I visited Chicago. My journal describes it as a flourishing city of 28,000 inhabitants. To-day it is

the first city in the land, one of the first in the world. It seems like the work of enchantment. The reality surpasses the most gorgeous visions of Aladdin. Beyond it is the White City, the most wonderful creation of this or any other age. The whole world has contributed its choicest and most precious treasures in honor of this most memorable occasion, as a tribute to the wonderful discovery of four hundred years ago, which gave a new world to the old, and the old world to the new. To-day we have done homage to a royal lady (the Infanta of Spain), whose grace, gentleness, and courtesy have won the hearts of the American people, and who comes to us as a representative of Queen Isabel of Castile and Leon, one of the noblest and purest characters in history. As I rode around the magnificent edifices of that wondrous city, propelled by the new power which is to revolutionize the earth, I saw a noble building dedicated to "Charities and Correction." Amid all the glories of this World's Columbian Exposition, the work to which your lives have been devoted is acknowledged and honored; and courtesy and charity, peace on earth and good will to men, help to the sorrowing and afflicted, relief to the distressed in mind, body, and estate, are interwoven into one complete and harmonious unity.

Permit me, sir, to congratulate you upon this auspicious gathering, and to say to you, ladies and gentlemen, that I know your President well and most favorably. Seven years ago he was the best Secretary I ever saw, and I doubt not that he will distinguish himself quite as much in the new and exalted position in which you have placed him.

The President, Rev. H. H. Hart, after being formally introduced to the Conference by Mr. J. S. Appel, Vice-President, then delivered the annual address,— "The Relation of the National Conference of Charities and Correction to the Progress of the Past Twenty Years" (p. 1).

At the close of President Hart's address Mr. Appel said he hoped the Executive Committee of this Conference would see some way to having it printed in full before the slow process of getting out the books; for, as a review of the work of the Conference, it was a very valuable contribution.

The "Report of the Committee on Reports of States" was then read by the chairman, Mr. A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin.

Mr. N. S. Rosenau called the attention of the members of the Conference to the fact that a business office had been established in the basement of the building, with telephone, post-office, and telegraph office immediately adjacent.

Secretary L. C. Storrs asked members to register their names on cards prepared for that purpose, and also stated that the Conference at Denver provided that a membership fee should be attached to membership in the Conference. This membership fee is $2, which entitles each member who pays the fee to a copy of the Proceedings of the Conference, and to have his name appear in the Proceedings.

Mr. Appel asked the members to hand in names — one from each State and Territory represented — for the Committee on Organization and on Resolutions, that the President might announce them in the morning.

SECOND SESSION.

Friday morning, June 9.

The Conference was called to order by President Hart at 10.05 A.M. Prayer was offered by Rev. Floyd Tompkins, D.D.

The report of the Committee on History of State Boards was read by Hon. Oscar Craig, of New York, chairman of the committee.

Reports from States.

Reports from States were then called for. The report from Alabama was prepared by Miss Tutweiler, the State Corresponding Secretary from that State. As she had been obliged to return to Alabama, her report was read by the chairman of the committee, Mr. A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin (p. 279). Mr. Wright said, before reading Miss Tutweiler's report: Miss Tutweiler's work is a striking example of what can be accomplished by a single person. Without any funds at her disposal, she has gone to work to improve the present condition of her State, in respect to the treatment of the dependent and delinquent classes, and is accomplishing much good.

The report from Alaska was read by Mr. Wright (p. 296).

The reports from Arizona and Arkansas were not read.

The report from Canada (Manitoba) was read by Mr. C. E. Faulkner, of Kansas (p. 329).

The report from Ontario was read by Hon. Levi L. Barbour, of Detroit, Mich. (p. 398).

Mr. Wright gave a brief outline of the work in Arizona and Arkansas, as follows: —

In Arizona they have an insane asylum. There is no poorhouse in the Territory. There was $10,000 left some years ago by an old miner for philanthropic purposes.

In Arkansas they have an insane asylum not at all adequate for the needs of the insane. They have a school for the blind and the deaf and dumb. There are county jails and poorhouses in most of the counties of the State. There is an outgrowth of public sentiment against the convict lease system. Probably no State in the Union had a worse system than Arkansas. Convicts were leased to the highest bidder and then subleased to other bidders. At present that subleasing has been stopped. There is a growing public sentiment against the convict lease system.

Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper read the report from the State of California (p. 296).

The Report of the Committee on the History of Immigration was read by the chairman of the committee, Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York (p. 106). After reading his paper, Dr. Hoyt said: —

Since the preparation of this report I have received from Rev. C. W. Wendte, of California, a member of the committee, a copy of an address delivered on the subject of Chinese Immigration. He transmitted it to me without letter, but I think it should be considered a part of the Proceedings of this Conference. If any communication should be received from Mr. Sanborn on the same subject, it should be referred also to the Committee on Publication, as well as the sermon of Mr. Wendte.

This suggestion was accepted, and the address was secured for publication as follows: —

CHINESE IMMIGRATION.

BY REV. C. W. WENDTE.

The American people, and more especially the inhabitants of California, are to-day brought face to face with a social and political question of the profoundest importance. Every loyal citizen and every lover of humanity will desire to have it settled in a manner that shall be honorable to our nation and just to our fellow-men, of whatever race, color, or condition. The issues involved in the enforcement of the Geary law are not merely local. They are both national and international. Though a portion of the people and press of the United States treats them with unseemly levity on the one hand and brutal indifference to moral consequences on the other,

these issues are of a very serious nature and far-reaching in their effects on our business, social, and political life.

Let me preface what I have to say on this subject by the statement that I have lived twelve years in California, and since my first visit in 1861 until now have taken a deep interest in the Chinese question. I early became convinced that the so-called California view of this matter is, in the main, the right one.

A large influx of Asiatic peoples into the Pacific States, such as we were threatened with twenty-five or more years ago when this agitation against the Chinese first began, would be a serious menace against the higher civilization of these new and as yet sparsely settled, loosely organized communities. Without entering into familiar arguments on the subject, it is sufficient to say that it would be hostile to the interests of intelligent, aspiring, free white labor and the prosperity of that great middle class of the population on whose existence and happiness the welfare of a State so largely depend.

The presence of a million or even half a million Chinese coolies in California, as would inevitably have been the case if this immigration had not been prevented, would have been an industrial, social, and political disaster of the first magnitude to the young civilization of the Pacific Coast. The opposition of the people of California to cheap Chinese labor has at times displayed itself in unreasoning, unjust, and brutal courses, but this should never prevent us from recognizing beneath all this agitation the justifiable, necessary motives of self-preservation, of social progress, of domestic integrity, and a higher political life.

So much may be said in vindication of the attitude of the people of California against the well-intentioned but mistaken philanthropy which, in maintaining its abstract theories, ignores the actual facts, and refuses to take into account the lessons of experience and the warnings of history. But Eastern communities have learned some bitter lessons recently concerning the character and results of unrestricted foreign immigration. Perhaps they are now more willing to do justice to the underlying motive and aim of the opposition to the Chinese.

My personal experience, too, with the Chinese has not been inconsiderable, although I have always from conscientious motives refused to employ them. What I have to say on the Geary law is therefore not without knowledge or reflection on my part, or due to any defective sympathy with social and labor problems in California.

That a restriction of further Chinese immigration into California, for a term of years at least, is wise, is just, is absolutely necessary to moral and social well-being, is a proposition I entirely concur in.

But I do protest, both as a minister and a citizen, against any attempt to harass, persecute, or treat with ignominy and cruelty the members of this race who are already resident here. The Geary

law is an attempt to do this. It singles out a certain element in our population for its especial hatred and vindictiveness. It makes oppressive regulations against this particular element which it does not enforce against any other class of foreign immigrants. It demands that they shall be registered "like a dog," as a Christian Chinaman said, and carry their certificates ever with them for identification, like a ticket-of-leave man out of jail on sufferance. It originally required them to be photographed, like a criminal in the hands of the police. It denies them the right of witnesses of their own race or the protection of a jury trial on their arrest for a supposed violation of the law. It provides for their imprisonment and deportation from the country if they fail to register within a specified period. It demands that, until the deportation, they be kept at hard labor,— a provision which United States Judge Ross, of Southern California, rightly termed "infamous."

Such a law is unjust, impolitic, and cruel. It does violence to the higher sentiments of equality and humanity: it shocks the moral sensibilities, not only of our nation, but of the civilized world. Furthermore, I do not believe it truly represents the moral sentiments of the people of California. It is a concession to its lower elements, a display of race hatred, a piece of political demagogism, and a relapse into barbarism.

An Industrial Misfortune.

Never was a measure less justifiable from an industrial, social, or political point of view. The number of Chinese in California is returned by the last census as 72,472, and only 107,475 in the whole country. They have been steadily growing fewer in number every year; and, even with smuggled accessions from over the border, they are continually decreasing among us. It only needs a walk through half-abandoned streets in Chinatown to satisfy one on this point. The very newspapers in San Francisco who are now clamoring for the enforcement of the Geary law a few months since were calling attention to the remarkable decrease in numbers of the Chinese, and prophesying their general withdrawal from business and industrial pursuits and abandonment of the Coast. The industrial competition of the Chinese has ceased to be formidable to free labor. Nay, the number now in California are a valuable addition to its working forces.

Withdraw them suddenly, and the railway contractor, the orchardist, vineyardist, and ranchmen would suffer great inconvenience and loss, and the financial depression now existing in San Francisco would be largely increased. It is a mistake to think that the crowd of unemployed men and boys in San Francisco would largely benefit by their wholesale removal. A large proportion of this idle element

is made up of the weak, the unskilled, and the worthless, who either cannot or will not work. The mere announcement that 70,000 Chinese have been withdrawn from the labor world in California would so flood the State with the unemployed from all over the country that in a few weeks the congested condition complained of would display worse symptoms than before. For the Chinese in California are not merely laborers, but also employers of labor; and the withdrawal of their capital and business sagacity would be a severe blow at the industrial interests of the State.

Health and Morals.

In vain do the enemies of the Chinese charge the physical and moral evils of San Francisco to the inhabitants of the Chinese quarter. That quarter is filthy, evil-smelling, vile. But it is no more so than districts in other cities peopled by other and white-skinned foreigners. I have seen as much to distress and horrify me in the slums of New York, London, and Glasgow as in the cellars and alleys of Chinatown. There are more disgraceful and dangerous plague spots in San Francisco than even the Chinese quarter. I refer to those underground sinks of iniquity, the dives and pool-rooms, and whole streets in the very heart of the city lined with abodes of shame and misery, where vice, crime, corruption, flaunt themselves, undisturbed by public sentiment, and lead thousands down to disease and death. If Chinatown is a danger to physical and moral health, why is it not put an end to? Why is it not declared a public nuisance, streets driven through it, the old rookeries torn down, the underground dens closed, the diseased and lawless sent to hospitals and jails or back to China?

The city of New York, even under the corrupt Tammany government, abolished in that way the Five Points of evil repute; and Boston, twenty-five years ago, caused every cellar at the unsavory North End to be vacated by its human occupants. Is the San Francisco government so weak or so venal that it cannot accomplish this? The worst men and women in Chinatown to-day are not the Mongolians: they are the unprincipled whites who make a living out of them. Such are the greedy landlords, the shyster lawyers, the venal city employees, and a still lower and unnamable class. If there were a proper public spirit, a right moral and Christian sentiment in the people of San Francisco, the so-called physical and social evils of the Chinese quarter would be greatly abated, if not altogether abolished.

International Complications.

The political consequences of this proposed ill-treatment and wholesale deportation of our resident Chinese are wide-reaching and grave. In their selfish provincialism, many of the people of California do not see this or refuse to entertain it. Our neighborly relations with that great nation China would be imperilled, our trade with it disturbed, if not destroyed, the lives of hundreds of business men, scientists, missionaries, and thousands of native converts, placed in jeopardy. We may not care for these things, but the American people, as a whole, does care; and our puny and senseless opposition will not count for much, when the honest, humane heart of the nation is aroused. It is the destiny of Californians to come into still closer relations with China at some future day. They face Asia, as the Atlantic seaboard faces Europe. It is inevitable that, when the present conservatism of the Celestial Empire is overcome, as it surely will be by the converging rays of civilization, the people of the Pacific Coast will be eager suppliants for the trade and good will of their Chinese neighbors across the ocean. The laboring man would be the first to feel the benefits of such an intercourse and traffic. Will he, then, prejudice his own interests by this relentless crusade against the representatives of China now in our midst?

An Inhuman Law.

Finally, I protest against the Geary law in the name of equal justice and humanity. The Supreme Court of the United States has pronounced it legal and constitutional, although a weighty minority of the judges dissented, and their testimony against the law was eloquently voiced by Justice Field. The Supreme Court pronounced the fugitive slave law constitutional; but the higher moral sense of the people revolted against it, the heart and flesh of humanity cried out against it, and it was overthrown. It is customary, when questions of such importance are discussed, to grant a rehearing by the full bench. It may be so in this case, and the Geary law yet be pronounced untenable. In any case, this iniquitous law is condemned by the unanimous voice of the higher reason and conscience and heart of civilized man. No measure, though intrenched behind a partisan Congress, a technical decision, a truckling press, the hatreds of race, or the selfish purpose of a class, can long withstand the moral sentiment of the world.

The people of California would be the first to feel the disastrous effects of their mistaken policy. Their industrial life would be disordered, their political and social morality lowered. They would stand discredited in the eyes of their fellow-Americans and of civil-

ized man. What an outcry went up from all lovers of humanity when the Russian government began its infamous policy of deporting its Jewish citizens! An equal outburst of popular sympathy and indignation would arise all over the land if we should arrest and herd in prison 70,000 unfortunate Celestials, for no other crime than that they had resisted an unjust, ignominious law, and followed too implicitly the counsel of their natural leaders, the Six Companies, who, with all their faults, are also their natural protectors and guardians. The State of California would feel the evil practical consequences of such a cruel deed for a quarter or half a century.

The execution of the Geary law will, I trust, be delayed by force of circumstances and a wise, humane executive, and, when Congress meets, be modified or repealed. Would we could as easily modify and repeal the evil spirit in men's hearts that led to its adoption! Would that juster, humaner sentiments controlled our conduct toward these, our yellow-skinned brothers, who, as Starr King used to say of the Negro, are of "the same color in the grain" as we! For God hath made of one blood all the nations of men. There is nothing common or unclean in his sight, and should not be in ours, but we should bestow the more abundant honor on that part which lacks.

Are we told that these are merely sentimental objections? Yes, I answer, the sentiments of the Declaration of Independence, of the American Constitution, of the Sermon on the Mount, and of modern and Christian civilization,— these rule the world; and the class or the community that dares defy them will be dashed into pieces like a potter's vessel.

President Hart announced the Committee on Time and Place, as follows: California, Mr. A. G. Warner; Colorado, Miss Izetta George; Delaware, Mrs. Mabel Clark; District of Columbia, H. W. Lewis; Indiana, Miss Margaret Peelle; Iowa, Dr. F. M. Powell; Kansas, C. E. Faulkner; Massachusetts, Colonel Henry Stone; Michigan, Mr. Hinchman; Minnesota, C. Amundson; Missouri, Miss Mary E. Perry; Nebraska, John Laughland; New York, Homer Folks; Ohio, Charles Parrott; Oregon, W. R. Walpole; Rhode Island, J. C. B. Woods.

The Committee on Organization was announced, as follows: California, Mr. A. G. Warner; Colorado, J. Warner Mills; District of Columbia, H. W. Lewis; Indiana, John R. Elder; Kansas, M. A. Haushalter; Massachusetts, George W. Johnson; Michigan, Levi L. Barbour; Minnesota, J. F. Jackson; Nebraska, J. T. Mallalieu; New York, Dr. Charles S. Hoyt; Ohio, John Webb, Jr.; Oregon, Dr. L. L. Rowland; Rhode Island, Rev. J. H. Nutting.

The report from Connecticut was read by Mr. Wright (p. 300).

The report from Delaware was read by Mrs. Clark, of that State (p. 304).

The report from the District of Columbia was read by Mr. H. W. Lewis, of Washington (p. 307).

Mr. WRIGHT.— The most interesting book I have read on the convict lease system is one entitled "The American Siberia." It is written by a man who was in charge of a prison camp in Florida for many years, giving the details of life in the camp, and unconsciously making the most serious charge against it that could be made.

The State of Georgia reports through its governor. They have a lunatic asylum and a deaf and dumb and blind asylum. The convict lease system is in force there, as the contracts will not expire for some six years. Many counties have poorhouses. The county jails are to be improved in construction, and even then many improvements will still be needed.

The report from Idaho was read (p. 311).

The report from Illinois, written by Mr. Whipp, was presented by Rev. Frederick H. Wines (p. 313).

The Conference adjourned at 12.20 P.M.

THIRD SESSION.

Friday night, June 9.

The third session of the Conference was called to order by President Hart at eight o'clock, in Room VIII. of the Art Institute. The meeting was opened by the reading of the report of the Committee on the History of the Treatment of the Insane, by Dr. C. E. Riggs, of Minnesota, chairman of the committee.

At the close of Dr. Riggs's paper Colonel Henry Stone, of Boston, said: —

I desire, while the gentleman who read this paper is still on his feet, to call his attention to an error in the paper. Massachusetts has never had any county treatment of its insane. A patient cannot be deprived of the benefits of hospital treatment. He cannot go into an institution until he has had the benefit of hospital treatment; and in the large towns, where the insane are cared for in the almshouses, they are cared for in an insane department.

The report from Iowa, written by Miss M. E. Starr, State Corresponding Secretary for Iowa, was read by Mr. Baldwin (p. 318).

Mr. Alexander Johnson read the report from the State of Indiana, reminding the Conference that Indiana is the last of the old frontier States. It is not a Western State at all. It has been a State seventy or eighty years, but it went along very slowly for seventy years. Within the last ten years it has made a wonderful progress. It is the last of the backwoods States, and was built up before the railroads helped it (p. 316).

Mr. Frank H. Betton, of Topeka, read the report from the State of Kansas.

President HART.— The reports from Indiana, Iowa, and Kansas have revealed a peculiar condition. They have all told about flourishing homes for soldiers' orphans. In Minnesota the homes for soldiers' orphans were closed long ago.

Mr. WRIGHT.— Kentucky makes no report this year. But from the report of the committee for the previous year we would make this report about the progress made in Kentucky: It has been a rather conservative State. There have been no definite changes in the treatment of the acute insane or the blind, the blind being especially well cared for, Kentucky being the headquarters of the printing-house for the blind in the United States. The convict lease system has been entirely abolished, and public sentiment has so grown that they are nearly prepared to establish a State Reformatory. A bill for that purpose has passed one branch of the legislature several times; and, undoubtedly, when this bill is next presented, it will pass, and the State Reformatory will be established. The State has pursued a mistaken policy in caring for idiots. In giving $75 a year to all persons caring for idiots, the result has been a slavery of these idiots, in their being farmed out to contractors. It would be better to have that plan abolished. No report has been made in regard to the poorhouses or jails. I assume that the condition of those is that of most States where there is no inspecting authority whatever, probably in a very poor condition.

The report of the Committee on the Treatment of the Feeble-minded was read by Dr. W. E. Fernald, of Massachusetts, chairman of the committee (p. 203).

Mr. Wright stated that no report had been received from the State of Louisiana, and the reports of previous years were so meagre that nothing could be gleaned from them that was worthy of presentation.

The report from the State of Maine was read by Mrs. L. M. N. Stevens, of Portland, State Corresponding Secretary (p. 327).

The report from the State of Maryland was read by the State Corresponding Secretary for Maryland, Mr. Jeffrey R. Brackett, of Baltimore (p. 331).

The report from Massachusetts was read by the Massachusetts State Corresponding Secretary, Colonel Henry Stone, of Boston (p. 339).

Adjourned at 10.15 P.M.

FOURTH SESSION.

Saturday morning, June 10.

The fourth session of the Conference was held on Saturday morning in Room III. of the Art Institute. The session was called to order at 10.10 by President Hart. Rev. Washington Gladden, D.D., of Columbus, offered prayer.

The report of the Committee on the History of Public and Private Indoor and Outdoor Relief was presented by the chairman of that committee, Rev. C. G. Trusdell, of Chicago, Ill. (p. 94).

The report from the State of Michigan was read by the State Corresponding Secretary of that State, Mr. L. C. Storrs, of Lansing (p. 345).

President HART.— It is certainly a matter of congratulation that the State of Michigan, after a great many years of effort, has just accomplished the establishment of an institution for the care and treatment of the feeble-minded.

A brief verbal report from the State of Colorado was given by Rev. W. H. Brodhead.

Within the last four years the legislature has made liberal appropriations for most institutions in Colorado. There is only one State penitentiary, and that is under the charge of the State Penitentiary Commissioners. In another town we have a reformatory, at present very limited in its work on account of lack of appropriations by the last legislature. The Reformatory at Buena Vista is under the charge of the warden of the penitentiary. It is a very limited work, because nothing but a stockade has as yet been provided for the sixty or seventy that have been permitted to go there from the penitentiary. The Industrial School for Boys has a manual training school

connected with it. For the insane asylum at Pueblo appropriations have been provided for accommodations in the coming years. There is a new law requiring all future buildings to be on the cottage plan. There was an effort made to provide a home for the feeble-minded, but the large amount of money required for the World's Fair from Colorado made it impossible to get it. We have not as yet any State home for the girls. They are cared for and their board paid for by the counties sending them to the Home of the Good Shepherd. The Board of County Visitors was established by the branch of the last legislature, to inspect the county jails, hospitals, and poorhouses of the county.

Mr. J. S. Appel, of Colorado.— No report from our State is complete without adding one word in reference to the kindergarten system. A statute enacted by our legislature established the kindergarten system as part of the public school system of the State. And, in all honor to the ladies who have managed the kindergarten system of the city of Denver, they had already provided a normal school and teachers for the kindergarten, thus enabling the State to furnish competent teachers for all the kindergarten schools that may be established.

The report from the State of Minnesota, prepared by Hon. J. W. Willis, of St. Paul, was read by President H. H. Hart (p. 347).

The report from Missouri was read by Miss Mary E. Perry, of St. Louis, the Corresponding Secretary for that State (p. 358).

In addition to her report, Miss Perry said: —

The country is indebted to the St. Louis women for engrafting upon the public school system the methods and philosophy of Froebel; and when, a few weeks ago, there was celebrated in our city of St. Louis the twentieth birthday of free kindergartens in America, there were eighty-seven free kindergartens, with an annual enrolment of 7,000 pupils. Among the illustrious educators to honor the occasion with their presence were William T. Harris, Denton J. Snyder, and Lewis F. Soldan.

The report from Montana was comprised in a series of statistical tables and a brief letter from the Secretary (p. 365).

The State of Nebraska furnished a report from the Corresponding Secretary, Rev. A. W. Clark, of Omaha (p. 366). It was read by Mr. Clark, who said: —

In correspondence with Mr. Hart, my understanding was that a simple statement would be more acceptable than a written statement.

He read a part of his report, and afterward said: —

I want to say that no compensation for labor is allowed to these prisoners, except they work hours after the time required; and very few of them are able to do this, so much is required of them on the contract system. This institution was only founded twenty years ago. Of course, our plan now is to have a change in the constitution of Nebraska. At the National Conference of last year it was a surprise to me to find that the management of other institutions was so much better than in Nebraska. We have three insane asylums, as will appear from the charts that are to be put on exhibition. In regard to children, we have a cottage system and the separation of boys and girls, a separate institution for girls on the cottage plan. We have a Home for the Friendless, managed by the assistance of the State Board of Trustees.

The report from New Jersey was read by Dr. David Warman, of Trenton, N.J., on behalf of the State Corresponding Secretary, Dr. Ezra N. Hunt, of Trenton (p. 376).

Charles D. Kellogg, New York.— I would like to ask the gentleman from New Jersey if the council to which he refers as having been founded in 1871 is still in existence.

Dr. Warman.— Yes, sir.

Mr. Kellogg.— Is it in an active or dormant state?

Dr. Warman.— It is rather dormant.

Mr. Kellogg.— Is any effort being made to render it more active?

Dr. Warman.— We are trying to make it so.

Colonel Henry Stone, of Boston, read the following telegram: —

Nashville, Tenn., June 10, 1893.

To Alexander Johnson and H. W. Lewis, National Conference of Charities and Correction, Chicago, Ill.

Nashville wants the Conference of Charities, and will give it a hearty Tennessee welcome.

Signed by the following gentlemen: —

R. R. Caldwell, *County Judge;* T. B. Guild, *Mayor;* T. O. Morris, *President Merchants' Exchange;* G. H. Armstead, *Secretary Commercial Club;* G. H. Baskette, *Editor of the Banner;* and D. B. Cooper, *Editor of the American.*

Col. Henry Stone.— The Committee on Time and Place has instructed me to report in favor of holding the next meeting at Nashville, Tenn., in the week beginning Wednesday, the 20th of May.

The motion to hold the next meeting at Nashville during the week beginning Wednesday, May 20, 1894, was unanimously carried.

An invitation was extended to the Conference to visit the Michael Reese Hospital.

The report from New Mexico was read by Mrs. Marsh (p. 379).

The report from the State of New York was read by Miss Julia S. Hoag, of Albany, State Corresponding Secretary (p. 379).

The report from Ohio was read by the Corresponding Secretary for that State, Mr. Joseph P. Byers, of Columbus (p. 392).

President HART.— One of the most important things, to my mind, that has ever been inaugurated in the United States is the establishment of the cumulative sentence system and the parole system in city workhouses in the State of Ohio.

Mr. WILLIAM HOWARD NEFF, Ohio.— I desire to say that all private institutions in Ohio are under the supervision of the State Board of Charities.

The report from Rhode Island was read by the Corresponding Secretary, Rev. J. H. Nutting (p. 404).

Mr. NUTTING.— A year ago I reported that our State had just appropriated $25,000 to endow a trade-school plant in our training school. I beg to say that I was incorrectly reported afterwards, the amount having been cut down one-tenth. I wish to say that my figures as originally given were correct.

The Committee on the Election of Officers report as follows: —

We recommend the following officers for the Twenty-first National Conference of Charities and Correction: —

President, Lucius C. Storrs, of Michigan.

Vice-Presidents: Judge R. R. Caldwell, of Tennessee; Mrs. J. M. Flower, of Illinois; Robert Treat Paine, of Massachusetts; Dr. Walter J. Lindley, of California.

Secretaries: A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin; C. E. Faulkner, of Kansas; Homer Folks, of New York.

Executive Committee: Levi L. Barbour, of Michigan; J. S. Appel, of Colorado; T. O. Morris, of Tennessee; John M. Glenn, of Maryland; and Alexander Johnson, of Indiana.

The Committee on Permanent Organization indorses the following recommendation of the Executive Committee in reference to a

change in the "rules of procedure of the National Conference of Charities and Correction": —

The Executive Committee recommends the following: —

That the rule regarding the Executive Committee, which now provides that said committee shall consist of the President *ex officio*, of four members elected by the Conference, and of the councillors, to be amended so as to provide that "the Executive Committee shall consist of the President *ex officio*, of five members to be elected by the Conference, and of the councillors, and that six members of such committee shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business."

And that such rule shall be further amended so that that portion of it which refers to the election of the Treasurer shall follow immediately the word "councillors," and thus express what the rule intends, that the office of Treasurer applies only to the Executive Committee.

The Committee on Permanent Organization further recommends that the Executive Committee make up the committees on topics for discussion for the Twenty-first National Conference.

The report was adopted.

A verbal report from the State of Pennsylvania was made by Dr. James W. Walk, director of the department of charities and correction of the city of Philadelphia, Penn., and secretary of the Society for Organizing Charity of Philadelphia. Before the close of the Conference a written report was received from the Corresponding Secretary, Mr. Cadwalader Biddle, which was presented to the Conference (p. 401).

An invitation to visit the Illinois Industrial School for Girls at South Evanston, Ill., was read.

Adjourned at 12.35 P.M.

FIFTH SESSION.

Saturday night, June 10.

The fifth session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was held on Saturday evening at eight o'clock. The meeting was called to order at 8.15 P.M. by President Hart. The report of the Committee on the History of Reformatories was presented by the chairman of the committee, Rev. James H. Nutting, chaplain of the Rhode Island institutions (p. 140).

The report from Utah, prepared by the Corresponding Secretary, Mrs. Cornelia G. Paddock, of Salt Lake City, was presented and read by Mr. Johnson (p. 414).

President HART.— I wish to say that Mrs. Paddock has put a great amount of labor into this report, but she is unable to be here on account of illness. I think that some recognition is due to Mrs. Paddock from the Conference for the preparation of this report.

The report from the State of Vermont, prepared by the Corresponding Secretary, Mrs. Julia C. R. Dorr, of Rutland, was read by Mrs. Lease, of Kansas, the president of the State Board of Charities of Kansas (p. 323).

Mr. A. O. WRIGHT.— Wisconsin was the first State to have a woman as a member of its State Board of Charities. Kansas is the first State to have a woman as president of its State Board of Charities.

The report from West Virginia, written by the Corresponding Secretary of that State, Rev. S. H. Day, of Morgantown, W. Va., was read by Mr. A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin (p. 425).

The last State to report was Wisconsin, whose report was read by its author, Mr. Gustav Frelson, of Milwaukee, State Corresponding Secretary of Wisconsin.

Dr. JAMES W. WALK.— I would like to ask the gentleman from Wisconsin if I understood him to say that the warden of the prison was opposed to the indeterminate sentence.

Mr. FRELSON.— Yes, sir.

Mr. WRIGHT.— This closes the reports from States. We have had reports from thirty States and Territories and two provinces of Canada, more than ever before. They have been presented, too, on a more uniform plan. This gratifying result is due far more to the President of the Conference than it is to the committee. The President has spent a great deal of time in securing these reports from the different States.

General Brinkerhoff, of Ohio, the chairman of the Committee on Prisons, then presented the report of that committee on the History of Prisons (p. 148).

Mr. C. E. FAULKNER.— We have not been entirely delinquent in the matter of prison reform in Kansas. Kansas has spent a million

dollars on it. The present State administration is in favor of the plan for a reformatory, and I may say that he receives his light from having been a former member of this Conference. I have no doubt that provision will be made for opening the new Kansas Reformatory on the Elmira plan.

Mrs. LEASE.— May I ask a question? Speaking for myself alone, I can truly say that I came here for information. I came to learn; and, in listening to the able and interesting papers that have been read here, we have learned that humanity has turned its face toward the light, that the world is growing better, that our methods are growing more humane, that the prisons controlled and cared for by women compare favorably with, if they do not surpass, the prisons cared for by men. We learn, too, that the percentage of the insane is increasing, and not only insanity, but also crime. We are dipping water from the ocean with a very small bucket, unless we look for the cause of all this insanity. If we do this, the time will come when this model of a prison, which the gentleman has described, will not be needed: our jails and almshouses and penitentiaries will be turned into educational institutions and into buildings where the insane, the impoverished, and the defective will be confined.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

SIXTH SESSION.

Sunday morning, June 11.

Religious services were held on Sunday morning, June 11, in the Hall of Columbus in the Memorial Art Palace.

A musical programme was rendered by musicians of Chicago; and the conference sermon was preached by Rev. Washington Gladden, D.D., of Columbus, Ohio (page 263).

The Conference adjourned at 12.40 P.M.

SEVENTH SESSION.

Sunday night, June 11.

The seventh and last session was held on Sunday evening, June 11, at eight o'clock. The meeting was called to order at 8.20 P.M. After music and prayer Rev. F. H. Wines presented the following resolutions: —

Resolved, That we record with regret the fact that this has been a year of unusual mortality among the members of this Conference. In what remains to us of life, we trust we may have a more earnest sense of responsibility; and we express

the hope that young men and women may come forward to take the place of the veterans in philanthropic work who fall by the way.

Foremost of those who have gone is our beloved and venerated friend, ex-President Rutherford B. Hayes; but we treasure the memory also of Dr. Peter Bryce, the model superintendent of the model hospital for the insane in Alabama; General S. C. Armstrong, the friend of the Indian, for so many years the head of the school at Hampton, Va.; Mr. George B. Buzelle, the efficient and unselfish secretary of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities; Mr. Albert S. White, the kind and honest superintendent of the Children's Home at Columbus, Ohio; Mrs. Jacobs, who was foremost in charitable work in Denver, and an orator of high talent and power; and Mrs. James S. Spear, of San Francisco, Vice-President of this Conference.

Resolved, That the President and Secretaries of the Conference are requested to include a brief but somewhat more extended necrological notice of each of the persons named in the volume of our Proceedings.

I wish to say something about Mrs. Spear, of California. Those of us who attended the Conference of Charities at San Francisco some years ago will testify that this lady placed us under great obligation. At that time the preparation for that Conference was all her work; and she carried our Conference at a time when it was not expected, but had voted to go to San Diego. We formed her acquaintance at that time. She was a lady of very rare talent and qualities, affectionate, tender, shrewd, energetic, of a great deal of executive ability, a very true friend, and a pleasant companion. She was born in Lansingburgh, N.Y., and was educated at Willard Seminary, Troy. After graduation she came to San Francisco with her parents, where her husband, Mr. Spear, met and married her. Her mother says that ever since she was a child she was interested in charitable work. In San Francisco she was an organizer of the Woman's Maternity Union. She was one of the organizers of the social charities of San Francisco. She was one of the directors, and held the position of vice-president at the time of her death. I think so much should be said of her at this time. I move the adoption of the resolutions.

The motion was seconded, and carried unanimously.

President HART.— I regret that the time at our disposal does not permit of calling out some of those who were personally acquainted with these dear friends who have been identified with us in this work, but it is impossible.

The report of the Committee on the History of Child-Saving Work was presented by the chairman of the committee, Hon. C. D. Randall, of Michigan (p. 131).

Mr. RANDALL.— The report of the Committee on Child-Saving Work is a book of about three hundred pages; and, in order to

spare you the reading of this volume to-night, it will be distributed to the actual members of this Conference at the close of the meeting.

The report of the Committee on the History of Charity Organization was read by Mr. Charles D. Kellogg, of New York, secretary of the Charity Organization Society of the city of New York (p. 52).

President HART.— It is customary at the Conference of Charities and Correction at the last meeting to have one or two five-minute speeches which shall summarize and gather up the topics of the meeting. I shall call upon Professor Amos G. Warner, of the Leland Stanford University of California.

Professor WARNER.— Perhaps, as I am not engaged in the administration of charities, I may say a word from the outside that could not be said from the inside,— a word which I do not remember to have heard at any of these Conferences. I mean the matter of payment for work, the matter of salaries for those who are engaged in benevolent organizations. It is with the salaried officers that my sympathies largely lie. The officialism that is said to belong to many of the paid officials of charitable societies comes from overwork and under-pay. It is what Mr. Dugdale has called under-vitalization; that is, the under-vitalization that comes from exhausting work without sufficient recreation. I think that, if those paid officials could come to these Conferences, they would get rest and have an opportunity to take a larger view of the work, without which all work is drudgery. I would ask this Conference to see whether or not better pay and better facilities for recreation, for the development of the best that is in them, cannot be secured. For the members who come to this Conference I do not know that there is any need for an appeal for recreation. I was surprised at their wonderful capacity for enjoying themselves. It was a little like finding a company of ministers out fishing or catching a company of monks at recreation. The capacity for recreation is one that must be cultivated on the part of paid officers, at least of the charitable societies of this country; and I ask you whether it will not be possible for you who are not paid officers to recollect who are the paid officers of the societies from which you come, and to see to it that they can come to the Conference every year. We need not serve the poor by loving them better than ourselves. That was not commanded of us. Indeed, we cannot serve the poor if there is an absurd sacrifice of life that comes from overwork that is foolish. The physical breakdowns that I have seen come time and again to those who receive inadequate assistance and who are expected to be on hand twenty-four hours every day! It is to-day becoming recognized by

the students of universities and colleges that it is nonsense to burn midnight oil and break down through overwork.

President HART.— The first president of the Charity Organization of the United States, Mr. T. Guilford Smith, of Buffalo, who has been in the work from the beginning, will now address the Conference.

Mr. SMITH.— *Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,*— The chairman of the evening asks me to say a few words of thanks to those of the citizens of Chicago, and to the Charity Organizations of Chicago who have made the preparations for our visit here. Those of us who have attended many of these Conferences will agree with me, I think, that, while we all have returned our thanks to the citizens of New York, Boston, and Denver, and now to-night to the citizens of Chicago, yet there is a certain return made by the very fact of the Conference being held in the various cities. I know when the Conference was held in Buffalo, a few years ago, it gave an impetus to charitable work, and infused a charitable sentiment throughout the city that we as pioneers and apostles had been unable to create. The attendance has been large at all these meetings. That fact can help a great deal towards showing our friends that we have a proper appreciation of what they are doing.

I hope, when the International Congress is in session, that an opportunity will be given to dwell upon the subject of outdoor relief and to give the emphasis of experience against it. I was asked to-night, "Would you give any outdoor relief?" And I said emphatically, "I would not give a cent." "Would you make any exceptions whatever?" I replied, "Well, perhaps, opodeldoc and coffins." That is the way I feel, and perhaps that is the way everyone feels who has had anything to do with the question of outdoor relief. Whenever any one thinks of it, it is a remarkable fact that the illegality of that piece of plunder has not been established in the large cities. They had that system in Brooklyn for years, until Mr. Low, when he became mayor, discovered that it had been for years unlawful; and he procured a temporary injunction. The courts heard the argument, and before the argument was finished the courts granted a permanent injunction, and since then Brooklyn has had no outdoor relief. He kept an account which was reported every morning of the census of the public institutions, and of the private institutions as well, in the city of Brooklyn, such as orphanages, homes, etc.; and the surprising fact was revealed that the population of those institutions did not increase, but rather seemed to diminish during the succeeding twelve months in that great city. Mr. Low and others agreed that this was evidence that outdoor relief was utterly worthless.

In Buffalo we give outdoor relief only after investigation. The Charity Organization supplements the police investigation by its

own. Every year the society presents in its report the total amount given away by outdoor relief and the total amount judiciously expended according to law, and the amount which has been injudiciously expended and ought not to have been given.

We thank you for the hearty welcome you have given us, and I hope we may meet in Nashville next year, and have very few names to report on the necrological list.

Mr. WINES.— *Mr. President, and Ladies and Gentlemen,*— I enjoy a woman's privilege, that of saying the last word.

The Committee on Resolutions is ordinarily framed for two purposes: one is to prepare resolutions, and the other is to kill them. Our Committee on Resolutions understands that its business is to kill resolutions; and, instead of the ordinary resolutions of thanks that are always offered, I will simply express a few words of thanks to those who have been so kind in making for us this hearty welcome.

We are not indebted to the Charity Organization Society of Chicago, beause there is no such society; and I am sorry to say that we have not a great deal for which to thank the Chicago Relief and Aid Society. I am not aware that any of its members have been present at any of these meetings, with the exception of Mr. Trusdell, the secretary, whose admirable paper you heard read the other evening.

We are very much indebted to our friend Mrs. Flower, who, I hope, will forgive me for naming her. I wish to say in this public manner that her election to the position of Vice-President of this organization was intended as a recognition of the aid she has given us.

We are especially indebted to the World's Congress Auxiliary for the use of these halls and for whatever aid they have given us.

We wish also to thank all the newspapers which have given us so much attention. Of course there is so much going on, with the World's Fair, the presence of the Spanish Infanta, and the different congresses assembled here, that we did not receive as much space as is usual for us to receive.

Some of you may be disappointed that we have not had as much discussion as usual. On account of the International Congress which occurs next week this Conference, which usually lasts six days, has been compressed into three. It has taken the form of an historical Conference. I believe that the Proceedings of this Conference will be more sought and in greater demand now and more referrred to in years to come, as showing the progress which we have made and the point to which we have attained, than any volume that has been issued.

President HART.— A year ago I took this platform with fear and trembling, with the Columbian Exposition here in Chicago, with the

pending International Congress of Charities, Correction, and Philanthropy, and with the well-known fact that the papers presented here would be printed. I came here prepared to be contented with a meagre attendance. As President of the Conference, I want to thank the members for the loyalty with which they have attended the meetings of the Conference. I know at what a sacrifice it has been done by many members, and with what great weariness at times. I wish to thank you for all the courtesies which you have extended to the presiding officer; also the different speakers for their courtesy in coming within the limit of time.

It now becomes my very delightful duty to introduce to you the President of the Conference of 1894, Mr. L. C. Storrs, of Michigan.

Mr. Storrs was greeted with hearty applause as he came forward, and spoke as follows: —

Mr. President and Friends,— I do not know that there is any person present here for whom it is more necessary to receive this introduction than for the President-elect himself. This honor has come upon me so unexpectedly, and is of such short duration, that I do not recognize myself in such capacity. I will not say that I have never hoped at some time to attain to it. I had thought that, possibly, with longer experience, greater wisdom, and, perhaps, with my hair more white and my head more bald, I might possibly attain to it.

The retiring President has still clinging to him some of his childhood habits, particularly that of losing his hat. There was a great hunt for the President's hat yesterday morning; and a person came to me, and asked me if I had that hat. "Well," he said, "anyhow, you have got into his shoes." I don't know of any greater honor than to buckle on the sandals that have been worn by the twenty preceding Presidents of this Conference. I want to thank you, in behalf of my State, Michigan, for the honor conferred on her, and the recognition of her work, by the selection of one of her sons to this high position.

It has been said that this is an historical Conference; and I think I am safe in saying that even the oldest members of the Conference were never before so impressed with the power and the influence of the National Conference of Charities and Correction as they have been during the sessions of this Conference, as they have listened to the reports of the work which has been done in the last twenty years, and its wonderful and forwarding results, the legitimate work of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Any man would shrink from this position in which you have placed me, were it not for the fact that he (the president) has back of him all the preceding Presidents of this Conference; also, the strong men and women whom you have made the Vice-Presidents and the Executive Com-

mittee. I thank you for such advisers and helpers also. But, above all this, for the exhibition of confidence and respect,—and may not I say love?—which is manifested by this choice, I thank you. And it will be my endeavor to so administer the office that, when I retire, you need not feel that this confidence had been misplaced, and that the respect and love which prompted it may be no less.

After the benediction had been pronounced by Bishop Cheney, the Conference adjourned at 10.15 P.M., to meet next year on May 20, at Nashville, Tenn.

TREASURER'S REPORT.

JOHN M. GLENN, TREASURER, *in account with* TWENTIETH NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION:—

Dr.

To Cash received of Wm. P. Letchworth, Treasurer			$2,471.44
To Cash received proceeds of sales of Eighteenth and previous reports			255.83
To Cash received proceeds of sale of Nineteenth Report:			
From State Boards of			
New York	$202.50		
Wisconsin	180.00		
Massachusetts	112.50		
Michigan	112.50		
Illinois	112.50		
Ohio	112.50		
Colorado	56.25		
Rhode Island	16.20	$904.95	
From Sundry Sales		463.90	1,368.85
To Cash received membership fees in Twentieth Conference			460.00
To Cash received interest on deposits			19.37
			$4,575.49

Cr.

By Cash paid Geo. H. Ellis:			
For Nineteenth Report, 502 pages, 2,500 copies, including composition, press-work, paper, electrotyping, heliotype portrait		$1,373.96	
Binding 1,700 copies cloth	$306.00		
Binding 300 copies paper	22.50	328.50	
Express and postage		76.20	
Packing		20.75	$1,799.41
Printing circulars Nineteenth Report		$46.50	
Twentieth Conference		13.00	59.50
Amount carried forward			$1,858.91

Amount brought forward		$1,858.91
By Cash paid L. C. Storrs, Secretary:		
Stationery, postage, and expressage:		
Account of Nineteenth Conference	$13.50	
Account of Twentieth Conference	262.03	
Account of expenses of clerk, etc.	100.00	375.53
By Cash paid Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows for reports of 1875, 1877, 1881, 1884, purchased by her		12.00
By Cash paid James H. Humphreys, insurance premium on $500 on back volumes of Proceedings		4.86
By Cash paid Sundries		.85
By Balance		2,323.34
		$4,575.49
To Balance to credit of Conference		$2,323.34

(E. & O. E.) JOHN M. GLENN, *Treasurer.*

JUNE 15, 1893.

Examined and found correct,

GEORGE S. ROBINSON,
LEVI L. BARBOUR,
Auditing Committee.

NOTE.— There was due at date of this account from State Boards of

Minnesota	$112.50	
Indiana	56.50	
Individuals	14.85	$183.85

The first two sums and $8.85 of the last have since been paid.

LIST OF MEMBERS.

*Members in attendance at the Chicago meeting of the Conference.
†State delegates appointed by Governor. ‡ Dead.

Belgium.

*Van Geert, Mme. Prosper, Dame Patronesse, Asile des Enfants Abandonnés, Bureau de Bienfaisance, Antwerp.
*Van Geert, Prosper, Administrateur, Bureau de Bienfaisance.

California.

Lindley, Walter, M.D., Superintendent Whittier State School, Whittier.
*Warner, Amos G., Ph.D., Professor of Economics, Leland Stanford, Jr., University, Palo Alto.

Colorado.

*†Appel, J. S., State Board of Charities and Corrections, Denver.
*†Brodhead, William H., Secretary State Board of Charities and Corrections, Denver.
*Friedman, Rabbi W. S., Director Jewish Charities of Denver, Denver.
*Gabriel, John H., President Young People's Charity Club, Denver.
*Houser, Mrs. Bella S., Investigator Charity Organization Society, Denver.
Likens, Miss Sadie M. W., Police Matron, City Hall, Denver.
*†Reed, Rev. Myron W., President State Board of Charities and Corrections, Denver.
Slocum, Rev. W. F., Jr., President Colorado College, Colorado Springs.
Welch, A. L., State Board of Charities and Corrections, 827 16th Street, Denver.

Connecticut.

Farnam, Henry W., 43 Hillhouse Avenue, New Haven.
*Knight, George H., M.D., Superintendent State School for Imbeciles, Lakeville.

Delaware.

*Clark, Mrs. Mary A. T., Superintendent Associated Charities, 421 Franklin Street, Wilmington.
Taylor, Daniel W., President Associated Charities, Wilmington.
*Wright, Mrs. James, Associated Charities, Wilmington.

District of Columbia.

*Lewis, Herbert W., Agent Board of Children's Guardians, Washington.
McPherson, John D., Manager Industrial Home School of District of Columbia, 1623 28th Street, N. W., Washington.
*Spencer, Mrs. Sara A., Trustee National Homœopathic Hospital, Washington.
Woodbury, Mrs. Anna Lowell, President First Mission School of Cookery and Housework, 1319 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington.

Illinois.

*Adams, Mrs. George E., 530 Belden Avenue, Chicago.
*Bemis, Edward W., Ph.D., Associate Professor Political Economy, University of Chicago, Chicago.
*Blatchford, E. W., 375 La Salle Avenue, Chicago.
*Chumasero, John T., President Illinois School of Agriculture and Manual Training for Boys, 148 Market Street, Chicago.
*DeMotte, H. C., Superintendent Illinois Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Normal.
*Doud, Mrs. L. B., President Erring Woman's Refuge, 3257 Michigan Avenue, Chicago.
*Dudley, Oscar L., Secretary and General Manager Illinois School of Agriculture and Manual Training for Boys, 113 Adams Street, Chicago.
*Engleman, Miss Emma, Chicago Relief and Aid Society, 649 Cleveland Avenue, Chicago.
*Enrich, Mrs. Rachel H., President Charity Council, Aurora.
*Felton, Charles E., Post-office box 459, Chicago.
*Flower, Mrs. J. M., Chairman Committee on Moral and Social Reforms, Chicago.
*Gregg, Rev. Frank M., D.D., Assistant Superintendent Children's Home Society, Chicago.
*Haines, Charles F., Secretary Sioux City Humane Society, 1205 Ashland Block, Chicago.
*Hall, A. Cleveland, Charity Organization Society of Baltimore, Maryland, Bureau Charities and Correction, World's Columbian Exposition, Chicago.
*Harrison, Mrs. Ursula L., Superintendent School of Agriculture and Manual Training for Boys, Glenwood.
*Henderson, Charles R., Assistant Professor of Sociology, University of Chicago, Chicago.
Jobst, Valentine, Manager Illinois State Reformatory, Peoria.

*Rexford, Miss Alma Z., Superintendent Home for the Friendless, 1926 Wabash Avenue, Chicago.
*Sandes, Mrs. Margaret I., Secretary Industrial School for Girls, Ravenswood.
*Shortall, John G., President Illinois Humane Society, 1600 Prairie Avenue, Chicago.
*Steers, William, Chaplain Southern Penitentiary (Chester), Menard.
*Stirling, W. R., 1616 Prairie Avenue, Chicago.
*Taylor, Graham, Professor of Christian Sociology, Chicago Theological Seminary, 81 Ashland Boulevard, Chicago.
*Trusdell, Rev. C. G., State Board of Public Charities, Superintendent Chicago Relief and Aid Society, 51 and 53 La Salle Street, Chicago.
*Wallace, Mrs. M. R. M., President Industrial School for Girls, Chicago.
*Wines, Frederick H., Secretary State Board Public Charities, Springfield.
*Woodnutt, Thomas W., 115 Kinzie Street, Chicago.

Indiana.

*Carson, Jos. L., Trustee Central Indiana Hospital for Insane, Fairland.
*Charlton, T. J., Superintendent Indiana Reform School for Boys, Plainfield.
*Elder, John R., Board of State Charities, Indianapolis.
*Fletcher, Stoughton A., Board of State Charities, Indianapolis.
*Hauser, Z. H., Trustee Central Indiana Hospital for Insane, Columbus.
*Johnson, Alexander, Secretary Board of State Charities, Indianapolis.
*Johnson, Miss Katherine D., Clerk Board of State Charities, Indianapolis.
Matthews, Hon. Claude, Governor, *ex-officio* President Board of State Charities, Indianapolis.
Myrick, Reuben, Trustee of St. Stephen's Hospital, Home for Friendless Women, and Indiana State Board of Managers of Children's Home Society, 408 South 15th Street, Richmond.
*Nicholson, Timothy, Board of State Charities, Richmond.
*Peelle, Mrs. Margaret F., Board of State Charities, Indianapolis.
*Reeve, C. H., Plymouth.
*Smith, Mrs. C. L., Superintendent Hope Hospital, 166 Barr Street, Fort Wayne.
*Spink, Miss Mary A., M.D., Board of State Charities, Indianapolis.
Wiles, Rev. T. M., Board of State Charities, Franklin.

Indian Territory.

*Hill, Rev. Robert W., D.D., Muskogee.

Iowa.

Hoover, Rev. George K., State Superintendent Iowa Educational Aid Association, or Children's Home Society, Davenport.
*Howard, Mrs. Nettie F., Agent Associated Charities, 115 West 6th Street, Davenport.
*Millard, Mrs. F. A., Assistant Secretary Charity Organization Society, Burlington.
*Powell, F. M., M.D., Superintendent Iowa Institution for Feeble-minded Children, Glenwood.
*Starr, Miss M. E., Secretary Charity Organization Society, Burlington.
*Stuart, T. McK., Trustee Iowa Hospital for Insane (Clarinda), Chariton.
Virgin, Miss Maud M., Charity Organization Society, Burlington.

Kansas.

*†Eastman, B. D., M.D., Superintendent Insane Asylum, Topeka.
*†Faulkner, Charles E., Superintendent Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Atchison.
*†Hausholder, M. A., State Board of Trustees of Charitable Institutions, Columbus.
*†Keily, H. B., State Board of Trustees of Charitable Institutions, Lawrence.
*†Lease, Mrs. Mary E., President State Board Trustees of Charitable Institutions, Wichita.
*†Spencer, Mrs. Martha P., Superintendent State Industrial School for Girls, Beloit.
*†Wait, W. S., State Board of Trustees of Charitable Institutions, Lincoln.
*†Wentworth, L. F., Superintendent State Insane Asylum, Osawatomie.
*†Yoe, W. T., Secretary State Board of Trustees of Charitable Institutions, Independence.

Louisiana.

*Heymann, Michael, Superintendent Jewish Orphans' Home, New Orleans.

Maine.

Merrill, Mrs. Margaret T. W., W.C.T.U., National Superintendent for Securing Homes for Homeless Children, 99 Winter Street, Portland.
*Stevens, Mrs. L. M. N., Trustee Industrial School for Girls, Director Temporary Home for Women and Children, Portland.

Maryland.

Barnwell, Miss C. C., Dispensary for Plaster of Paris Jackets, 407 West Hoffman Street, Baltimore.
*†Brackett, Jeffrey R., Manager Charity Organization Society, 10 West Madison Street, Baltimore.
*†Glenn, John M., Manager Charity Organization Society, 12 St. Paul Street, Baltimore.
Gould, E. R. L., Ph.D., Statistical Expert United States Department of Labor, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.
Green, David I., Instructor in Social Science Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.
Library, New Mercantile, 305 North Charles Street, Baltimore.
Penington, D. F., M.D., Masonic Lodge of Relief, 221 North Liberty Street, Baltimore.
*†Richmond, Miss Mary E., General Secretary Charity Organization Society, 301 North Charles Street, Baltimore.
Schröder, Miss Olga, M.D., Charity Organization Society, Bryn Mawr School, Baltimore.
Shippen, Dr. C. C., Manager Charity Organization Society, 603 North Charles Street, Baltimore.
Steiner, Bernard C., Ph.D., Librarian Enoch Pratt Free Library, 106 West Mulberry Street, Baltimore.

Massachusetts.

*Birtwell, Charles W., General Secretary Children's Aid Society, 43 Charity Building, Chardon Street, Boston.
*Carolin, William T., M.D., Trustee State Almshouse, Trustee State Farm, Lowell.
Codman, Mrs. Henrietta G., State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Brookline.
Cowles, Edward, M.D., Medical Superintendent McLean Asylum, Somerville.
*Crawford, Mrs. Sarah M., M.D., State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Medical Visitor, Depart-

ment of Outdoor Poor, 144 Dudley Street, Roxbury.
Curran, Charles J., M.D., State Board of Lunacy and Charity, North Adams.
*Dawes, Miss Anna L., Manager Home Work Association, Pittsfield.
Donnelly, Charles F., State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Boston.
*Fay, Miss Sarah B., Trustee New England Home for Little Wanderers, 88 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston.
*Fernald, Walter E , M.D., Superintendent Massachusetts School for Feeble-minded, Waverley.
Fiske, Mrs. Sarah D., Trustee State Almshouse and State Farm, 102 Hancock Street, Malden.
Green, Samuel S., Librarian Free Public Library, Worcester.
Hale, George W., 13 State Street, Lawrence.
Hart, Albert Bushnell, Assistant Professor History, Harvard University, 15 Appian Way, Cambridge.
*Hitchcock, Edward, State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Amherst.
Jackson, Miss Anna P., Director Children's Aid Society, 383 Beacon Street, Boston.
*Johnson, George W., Chairman State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Brookfield.
*Lee, Joseph, Secretary Massachusetts Committee Charities and Correction to World's Fair, 1003 Exchange Building, Boston.
Morse, Miss Frances R., Associated Charities, 12 Marlborough Street, Boston.
Nichols, Dr. Charles L., Director Associated Charities, Worcester.
*Overseers of the Poor, 17 Charity Building, Boston.
Page, D. L., M.D., Lowell.
*Paine, Robert Treat, President Associated Charities, 6 Joy Street, Boston.
*Parker, Miss Sarah, 495 Blue Hill Avenue, Roxbury.
Pettigrove, Fred G., Secretary Commissioners of Prisons, State House, Boston.
*Pickering, Henry E., Director Children's Aid Society, Boston.
*Pratt, Laban, State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Boston.
Pullman, Rev. J. M., D.D., Director Associated Charities, 25 Cherry Street, Lynn.
Putnam, Charles P., M.D., Associated Charities, 63 Marlborough Street, Back Bay Post-office, Boston.
*Putnam, Miss Elizabeth C., Trustee of State Primary School, 63 Marlborough Street, Boston.
Rice, William, Secretary City Library Association, Springfield.
*Richardson, Mrs. Anne B., State Board of Lunacy and Charity.
*Roberts, W. P., M.D., Secretary American Health Resort and Invalid Aid Society, 355 Boylston Street, Boston.
*Rogers, Miss Annette P., Overseer of Poor, Director Children's Aid Society, 5 Joy Street, Boston.
*Shurtleff, Hiram S., Superintendent Outdoor Poor, State Board of Lunacy and Charity, State House, Boston.
*Smith, Miss Zilpha D., General Secretary Associated Charities, 41 Charity Building, Boston.
*Spinney, Frank C., Associated Charities, Lynn.
Stedman, Henry R., M.D., Trustee Taunton Lunatic Hospital, Roslindale Post-office, Boston.
*Stone, Henry, State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Boston.
*Todd, Miss Hannah M., Probation Officer Municipal Court, 93 Tyler Street, Boston.
Vaughan, Charles E., M.D., Overseer of Poor, Director Associated Charities, 8 Garden Street, Cambridge.
Wells, John D., Clerk State Board of Lunacy and Charity, State House, Boston.
*Woodbury, Charles E., M.D., Inspector of Institutions, State Board of Lunacy and Charity, 13 Beacon Street, Boston.
*Worcester, Charles P., Trustee State Primary and Reform Schools, 688 Boylston Street, Boston.
Wrightington, Stephen C., Superintendent of Indoor Poor, State Board of Lunacy and Charity, State House, Boston.

Michigan.

Baldwin, Mrs. Stephen, Trustee Detroit Industrial School, Detroit.
*Barbour, Levi L., Regent University of Michigan, 30 Buhl Block, Detroit.
*†Bowling, Mrs. E. C., Detroit.
*†D'Arcambal, Mrs. Agnes L., Home of Industry for Discharged Prisoners, 259 Willis Avenue, Detroit.
*Dewing, Mrs. J. A., Manager Children's Home, Kalamazoo.
Hudson, J. L., Detroit.
*†McCollester, Lee S., Detroit.
Morrison, Mrs. S. A., National Superintendent Almshouse Work, Woman's Christian Temperance Union, Wayne.
*†Randall, C. D., Coldwater.
*Storrs, L. C., Secretary State Board of Corrections and Charities, Lansing.
*†Yemans, Sarah E., President Day Nursery and Kindergarten, 527 Woodward Avenue, Detroit.

Minnesota.

*Amundson, Christopher, State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Peter.
Bell, David C., Minneapolis.
Bowers, J. Eton, M.D., Duluth.
Boyd, Harlan J., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Alexandria.
Brackett, George A., State Board Corrections and Charities, Minneapolis.
*Cowie, George G., Clerk State Board Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
Fitzgerald, John, Superintendent St. Paul Workhouse, St. Paul.
*Hart, Mrs. H. H., St. Paul.
*Hart, Hastings H., Secretary State Board Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
*Holt, George D., Secretary Associated Charities, Minneapolis.
Huntington, Professor George, Northfield.
*Jackson, James F., General Secretary Associated Charities, Room 5, 141 East 9th Street, St. Paul.
Kelly, Anthony, Director Minnesota Institute for Defectives, Minneapolis.
Knox, Zillah, Clerk State Board Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
Ludden, John D., 641 Wabasha Street, St. Paul.
Maginnis, C. P., State Board Corrections and Charities, Duluth.
McGolrick, Rt. Rev. James, Duluth.
*Merrill, G. A., Superintendent State Public School for Dependent Children, Owatonna.
Nelson, Hon. Knute, Governor *ex officio* President State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
Northrop, Cyrus, LL.D., President of Children's Home Society, Minneapolis.
Noyes, Daniel R., 366 Summit Avenue, St. Paul.
Peet, E. W., President Charities Association, 271 Summit Avenue, St. Paul.

Rhoades, Miss Chloe A., Superintendent Bethany Home, 3719 Bryant Avenue, South Minneapolis.
Rich, John H., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Red Wing.
*Riggs, C. Eugene, M.D., 595 Dayton Avenue, St. Paul.
*Rogers, A. C., M.D., Superintendent Minnesota School for Feeble-minded, Faribault.
Rothschild, Joseph, St. Paul.
Savage, Rev. E. P., Superintendent Children's Home Society of Minnesota, 611 New York Life Building, St. Paul.
Shutter, Rev. Marion D., Pastor First Universalist Church, 317 South 8th Street, Minneapolis.
Simmons, Rev. H. M., Pastor Unitarian Society, 803 Mary Place, Minneapolis.
*Smith, Rev. Samuel G., D.D., State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
Stearns, Sarah B., 1105 Loudon Road, Duluth.
Tomlinson, H. A., M.D., Superintendent St. Peter State Hospital, St. Peter.
Wells, H. R., Preston.
William, Stephen B., Vice-President Children's Aid Society of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

Missouri.

*†Finney, Rev. Thomas M., General Manager Provident Association, St. Louis.
*Fischel, Mrs. W. E., Superintendent Domestic Economy School, 2647 Washington Avenue, St. Louis.
*Harrison, Mrs. Edwin, Secretary Episcopal Orphans' Home, 3747 Westminster Place, St. Louis.
Hopkins, Henry, President Benevolent Trust Association, President Federation of Churches for Charity, 916 Holmes Street, Kansas City.
Morton, Mrs. Rebecca H. W., First Directress Protestant Orphan Asylum, 49 Vandeventer Place, St. Louis.
*Murphy, Mrs. M. J., St. Louis.
*†Perry, Miss Mary E., 12 Vandeventer Place, St. Louis.

Nebraska.

*†Bates, Mrs. L. A., Secretary Visiting and Examining Board Sunday-school Home, Aurora.
Clark, A. W., Assistant Secretary Associated Charities, Omaha.
*†Hamblin, C. H., Tekamah.
*†Hoel, Mrs. L. B., Superintendent Home for Friendless, Lincoln.
*†Johnston, G. W., Superintendent Asylum for Chronic Insane, Hastings.
*†Kimball, Thomas L., Trustees Associated Charities, Omaha.
*†Laughland, John, Assistant Secretary Associated Charities, Omaha.
Lewis, Frank W., Vice-President Charity Organization Society, Lincoln.
*†Little, Dr. C. B., Superintendent Hospital for the Insane, Norfolk.
*†Mallalieu, John T., Superintendent Boys' State Industrial School, Kearney.
*†McKelvey, James D., Superintendent Girls' Industrial School, Geneva.
*†Thurston, Mrs. John M., Omaha.
Woods, Albert H., Charity Organization Society, Lincoln.

New Hampshire.

Blodgett, Mrs. I. N., Trustee New Hampshire Orphans' Home, Franklin.

New Jersey.

Mott, Rev. George S., D.D., Manager New Jersey Charities Aid, Flemington.
*Otterson, Ira, Superintendent State Reform School for Boys, Jamesburg.
*Warman, David, M.D., State Charities Aid Society, Trenton.

New York.

Andrews, Constant A., Treasurer Charity Organization Society, 72 Broadway, New York.
*Blake, William, Superintendent Department Public Charities and Corrections, 66 3d Avenue, New York.
*Blumer, G. Alder, M.D., Superintendent Utica State Hospital, Utica.
Brace, Charles L., Secretary Children's Aid Society, 105 East 22d Street, New York.
*Caldwell, Miss Louise T., Charity Organization Society, 64 East 58th Street, New York.
*Craig, Oscar, President State Board of Charities, Rochester.
*Craig, Mrs. Oscar, President Rochester Female Charitable Society, Rochester.
*Davenport, Mrs. John, State Charities Aid Association, Bath.
*De Forest, Robert W., President Charity Organization Society, 62 William Street, New York.
Dodge, A. M., Charity Organization Society, 26 Cortland Street, New York.
Dodge, D. Stuart, President Christian Home for Intemperate Men, 11 Cliff Street, New York.
*Folks, Homer, Secretary State Charities Aid Association, 105 East 22d Street, New York.
*Hoag, Mrs. Julia S., State Board of Charities, Albany.
*Holls, Frederick W., Councillor Charity Organization Society, New York.
*Hoyt, Dr. Charles S., Secretary State Board of Charities, Albany.
*Ireland, J. E., President Brunswick Home, Amityville.
*Ireland, Mrs. J. E., Amityville
*Kellogg, Charles D., General Secretary Charity Organization Society, 105 East 22d Street, New York.
Kursheedt, M. A., 35 Warren Street, New York.
*Letchworth, W. P., State Board of Charities, Buffalo.
Longworth, F. S., General Agent Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, 105 East 22d Street, New York.
*Love, Miss Maria M., Charity Organization Society, Chairman Fitch Crèche, Buffalo.
*Moore, Miss Alice, Agent Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.
*Moore, Miss Marion I., Assistant Secretary Charity Organization Society, Fitch Institute, Buffalo.
*Moss, Mrs. George, Trustee State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women, Rochester.
‡Peters, Venerable Archdeacon T. M., S.T.D., Vice-President Protestant Episcopal City Mission Society, 38 Bleecker Street, New York.
*Rosenau, Nathaniel S., Superintendent Bureau of Charities and Correction, World's Columbian Exposition, United Hebrew Charities, N.Y.
*Schuyler, Miss Louisa Lee, Manager State Charities Aid Association, 19 West 31st Street, New York.
*Smith, T. Guilford, President Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.
Thompson, Frederick F., Vice-President Charity

Organization Society, First National Bank, New York.
*Wilcox, Ansley, Trustee Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.

Ohio.

*Ayres, P. W., General Secretary Associated Charities, Cincinnati.
*Behrens, Henry, Director Cincinnati House of Refuge, Cincinnati.
Breed, William J., President Associated Charities, 685 West 8th Street, Cincinnati.
*Brinkerhoff, General Roeliff, Chairman Board of State Charities, Mansfield.
*Byers, Joseph P. Clerk Board of State Charities, Columbus.
Crouse, Meigs V., Superintendent Children's Home, 192 West 9th Street, Cincinnati.
*Dalton, James, Director Cincinnati House of Refuge, Cincinnati.
*Miller, H C., Superintendent Franklin County Infirmary, Columbus.
*Follett, Hon. M. D., Board of State Charities, Marietta.
*Frank, Charles, Director Franklin County Infirmary, Columbus.
*Fulton, Levi S., Superintendent Cincinnati House of Refuge, Cincinnati.
*Hart, Dr. A. G., 102 Jennings Avenue, Cleveland.
*Hathaway, S. J., Trustee Children's Home, Marietta.
Hough, W. S., M.D., President Cleveland Asylum for the Insane, Cuyahoga Falls.
Johnston, Miss Sarah F., Matron and Superintendent Lawrence County Children's Home, Ironton.
*Neff, William Howard, Board of State Charities, Cincinnati.
Niesz, Mrs. J. K., Matron Lucas County Children's Home, Toledo.
*Parrott, Charles, Board of State Charities, Columbus.
*Peek, Sarah O., Superintendent The Retreat, Cleveland.
*Waterton, Mrs. R. T., County Visitor County Jail and Infirmary, South Newberry.
*Webb, John, Jr., Director Cincinnati House of Refuge, Cincinnati.

Oregon.

*Rowland, L. L., M.D., Superintendent State Insane Asylum, Salem.
*Walpole, William R., Secretary City Board of Charities, 213 4th Street, Portland.

Pennsylvania.

Baily, Joshua L., President Society for Organizing Charity, 13 Bank Street, Philadelphia.
*Ball, M. V., M.D., Surgeon Eastern State Penitentiary, 21st Street and Fairmount Avenue, Philadelphia.
Biddle, Cadwalader, General Agent and Secretary Board of Public Charities, 1224 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.
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